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EDUCATION STAFF TRAINING DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

REPORT OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL STAFF DEVELOPMENT WORKSHOP FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNERS, ADMINISTRATORS, LECTURERS AND TEACHER EDUCATORS ON EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION AND TEACHER EDUCATION

MASERU, LESOTHO
1-13 JUNE 1987

LC/NAIROBI

ORGANIZED BY ECA AND THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION (UNDER THE AUSPICES OF BANFES) OF THE KINGDOM OF LESOTHO

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UNITED NATIONS ECONOMIC COMMISSION FOR AFRICA

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Introduction:

I. Organization

1. The national educational staff development workshop on educational administration and teacher education was jointly organized by ECA and the Ministry of Education of the Kingdom of Lesotho within the framework of the basic and Non-Formal Education Systems Project (BANFED). The Workshop was in two parts. The first part concentrated on educational administration, and the second on teacher education.

II. Date and Venue

2. The Workshop was held at the Institute for ExtraMural Studies (IEMS) of the National University of Lesotho (NUL), Maseru from 1-13 June 1987.

III. Participation

3. The first part of the Workshop on educational administration was attended by twenty-one participants; and the second part on teacher education by twenty-five participants. In all, the Workshop was attended by forty-six (46) participants consisting of educational and curriculum planners, educational administrators, lecturers, teacher educators, and school inspectors from the Ministry of Education, National University of Lesotho (Roma and IEMS composes) and the National Teacher Training College (NTTC). The full list of participants appears as Annex I to this report.

IV. Resource Personnel

4. The Workshop was serviced by three resource person, one from the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (ECA), who conducted most of the sessions and directed the proceedings of the Workshop; and two other resource persons from BANFES assisted in the conduct and co-ordination of the Workshop.

V. Opening of the Workshop

5. There was no formal opening of the Workshop other than introductory remarks by the Workshop Co-ordinator, Dr. Barnabas Otaala, Academic Programme/Teacher Training Specialist, National Teacher Training College, Masru. In his introductory remarks, Dr. Otaala explained in detail the events that led to the organization and conduct of the Workshop; how and why it had been postponed on two occasions, and the many problems encountered in organizing it. In spite of all this, Dr. Otaala explained, it was pleasing to note that the Workshop finally took place and had attracted a good audience of high calibre. He therefore expressed his thanks to the donors for the BANFES project: the financial support of which had made the Workshop a reality; to the Ministry of Education for the support; to the National

Teacher Training College and to IEMS for logistic support. He thanked and paid tribute to ECA for their contribution in supplying the resource person, whom he was particularly pleased to introduce that day. He also thanked the participants for sparing their time to attend the Workshop.

6. Dr. Otaala pointed out that while Lesotho was grappling with the problems of an educational system inherited from the colonial era, improvements in educational administration and teacher education were of absolute necessity if progress was to be made in the management and development of education. This, he said, entails up-dating the skills of educators and educationists in the field of education through seminars, Workshops and in-service programmes. It was for this reason that the Workshop was being held.

7. He said that the Workshop had been organized at an opportune time when Lesotho was reviewing and examining the findings and recommendations of the Task Force for implementation. He said that the Task Force Report _1/ carried recommendations pertinent to the topics to be discussed at the Workshop e.g. education and development; educational administration, curriculum development and teacher education.

8. He drew the attention of participants on the need to guard against the feeling that anyone who was a good teacher can also become a good administrator; or that anyone who has a good voice can teach. The two in each case were not necessarily the same. Each, he went on required the development of special skills. A Workshop like the one being held, helped to focus attention on the kind of skills needed in each case. In this regard there was need to examine not just the various approaches to educational administration and teacher education but to ensure that those engaged in the field of educational practice and administration were kept abreast of new techniques, instructional technology, methods and practices.

9. He then introduced the resource person from the ECA and wished him and the participants a fruitful workshop.

VI. Background to the Workshop

10. Lesotho inherited model of education upon independence in 1966 which was not quite in keeping with its heritage, endowment and cultural identity. The system did not sufficiently foster intensive endogenous efforts and capabilities to identify problems and determine development priorities.

11. Indeed in Lesotho, as elsewhere in African countries, education has been accused of failing to meet individual and national needs because of some issues of the folowing:

_1/The Education Sector Survey: Report of the Task Force, Ministry of Education, Maseru, Lesotho, November 1982.

- the emergence of the problem of having to employ school leavers without vocational orientation in productive and socio-economic activities;

- the increasing trek of school leavers to urban centres in search of white collar employment and a dislike for manual work; and the general drift from rural to urban areas by those who have finished schooling;

- the general failure by education in fostering the development of individual competences necessary to enable one in leading a successful and creative life; and for economic growth: hence the continued importation of external expertise;

- the educational system's inability to match the rising rate of population growth and the attendant increase in the demand for educational opportunities.

12. So far attempts to cope with some of these educational problems appear to fall into four broad categories:

(a) the expansion of the formal system towards a universal primary education. This expansion, however, slowed down in the early seventies when African educationists/educators became increasingly aware that there was no virtue in sheer numbers; and that the decline in the quality of education in the schools was not in the best interest of African development.

(b) rearrangements within the system to maximize the use of human financial and material (school plants, equipment and instructional) material resources. There have been instances of policy decisions to increase class sizes, to introduce shifts, and evening classes, to improve facilities, increase in subject offerings, to change examinations, to up-grading of teachers and more openings and opportunities at the openings and opportunities at the successive levels of the educational pyramid;

(c) regulation of student/pupil flow consequent upon the state's inability to provide education to all those who qualified for the next successive level of the system. Modern or junior secondary schools were introduced and vocation-oriented secondary education was introduced too, side by side with the traditional grammar school;

(d) innovations and educational reforms designed to solve some of the pertinent issues in education such as the introduction of educational broadcasting and television as well as correspondence courses to overcome teacher shortage and ensure accessibility of educational opportunities to many coupled with the use of the mother tongue/ national language as a medium of instruction and the localization and indigenization of examinations. Outside the formal school system, functional literacy programmes both in the mother tongue or the country's official national language were

introduced, and so was agricultural extension work and co-operative management.

13. In view of the foregoing however, due recognition and attention was given to education and training as a critical sector which is both a consumer and producer of the knowledge, skills and technology, developer awareness for the need for physical and mental welbeing both of which are inputs not only into education itself but also into the various sectors of the economy. To accelerate the pace of development, it is important to re-orient and expand the education and training sector to enable it to meet adequately its own expansionary and development needs as well as supply the needed inputs for the production and service rendering activities in the vital sectors such as agriculture, health, construction, industry, transport and communication, mining, forestry, etc all of which depend for their growth on the technical, scientific and managerial education. This therefore, calls for reorienting education to socio-economic and human development needs. It entails effective planning of educational systems; it entails innovations in curriculum and accelerated teacher education, it entails fundamental changes and reforms in administrative structures.

14 However, an ineffective administrative structure has its own consequences. It may lead to frustration among staff, ineffective utilization of resources, human financial and material; to poor quality output, and to delays and sometimes non-attainment of education aims and objectives. Since education starts and ends with administration, it is important for nations to have effective administrative structures that respond and minister to the needs of the schools.

VII Objectives of the Workshop

15. In an attempt to review these problems, the Workshop objectives were related to answering such questions as:

A. What should schools/educational institutions teach?
   (i) to which students and for how long?
   (ii) how can teaching materials be prepared?
   (iii) how is teaching/learning to be organized?
   (iv) how are teachers to be suitably trained and re-trained and how can methods of teaching be improved?
   (v) how is learning/teaching to be effectively evaluated?

B. How can the entire process be continuously adjusted to ensure that the education students receive is relevant to their own needs and those of society?

C. How are educational programmes to be implemented and evaluated?

D. Where are resources (human, material and financial) to come from and how are they to be effectively utilized?

E. How is the teaching/learning process and the curricular activities of schools and indeed educational institutions be related, and linked to the world of work in production of service rendering organizations?

F. Given the high costs of education, how can the use of staff, student and physical facilities be maximized so as to effectively implement reforms in the course of the process?

16. As designed, the Workshop did not necessarily answer all the questions, but tried to map out possible answers to most of the questions. In essence, it tried to provide the tools to answering these questions. Attention was therefore focussed on two areas which could provide a basis for analysis of the situation and determination of some answers to the questions relative to educational administration and teacher education.

A. Part I - Educational administration

17. To translate educational targets in terms of structure of educational systems, and the administrative mechanisms behind that system (its financing, construction of schools, content of courses, methods and instructional materials, tools, flow of students, teacher recruitment and training, research and experimentation) calls for important decisions - a process which depends upon continuous planning, organization and administration. But this cannot be done simply as an ad hoc arrangement. It involves careful planning and organization i.e., clearly- established and carefully-conceived mechanisms and systems to ensure that continuous educational development keeps pace with the rapid changes of modern life.

18. Since major instructional and organizational changes in educational systems (including as they do, complicated and administrative procedures and coming at rare intervals) concern in this programme was to remind participants that instruction was the supreme purpose of the schools and all activities and services essential to the successful operation and improvement of instruction must be considered as contributory. Organization and administration, growing from instructional needs, must therefore be considered only as means and not an end in the achievement of instructional objectives.

19. Administration is essentially a back-stopping and enabling service activity and function through which the fundamental objectives of the educational process may be more fully and effectively realized. In the development of this point of view, the teacher emerges as the most important agent, with the administrator in the position of ministering to the teaching-learning needs and thus to the general efficiency of teaching-learning process.

20. In accepting this educational function, it was necessary to examine, appraise and orient objectively all structure and organizational practices in terms of instructional purposes i.e., that through better and improved educational administration a nation can re-orient education to purpose, to process and to structure.

21. The Workshop therefore, addressed itself to a study of educational administration and how it can make learning more efficient and help the administrator in making better decisions for the education purpose and to help teachers, tutors/lecturers play and understand better their role in education.

22. In this regard, the programme objectives of the session on educational administration were set as follows:

(i) to review the status, effectiveness and operation of educational administration in fostering learning and in the promotion of education in general;

(ii) to review the principles, methods and techniques of learning and teaching, educational and curriculum planning and administration;

(iii) to exchange ideas and information on management of schools, of educational reforms, of educational development; and of current practices in educational administration.

B. Part 2 Teacher education (programme 2)

23. Both in the levels of theory and action, teacher education was characterized by confusion, effervescent hopes, mordant fears and wishful thinking and increasing pessimism. Indeed education, per se has never had an easy time. While the classicist felt that real education was cultivation of the mind, the vocational voice stressed the importance of job-oriented instruction: with the pragamatist trying to reconcile these views, albeit with little success. These differing opinions often end up confusing teachers, especially the inexperienced ones.

24. It was the purpose of the Workshop, therefore, to provide a critique on the present conditions and illuminate what the future might bring. The programme was consequently built around the theme of improvement in teacher education on such issues as:

- learner-based curricula
- performance-based teacher education
- teacher-based education
- total community involvement in the education process.

25. In the face of critics arguing that teaching was a pseudo-profession, resting an experience and apprenticeship, teaching had to have much more than presenting information of ideas: i.e. among other things, building pupils to learn by means of the probing, discovering, analysing and maximizing activities, cultivate the subtle business of building attitudes and values, and the more straightforward tasks of skills development. These tasks cannot be performed by non-professionals uncommitted to the cause of developing and guiding individuals and to the professional ethics of the trade. Teaching, as was then noted, was to try help someone learn something, or more formally to help someone acquire or change some behaviour, i.e., some skill, attitude, knowledge, ideal or appreciation.

26. Therefore, to improve learning in schools, teacher education and to proceed both toward incremental reform, through strong disciplinary training and professional preparation, continual retraining in and provision of teacher centres and complexes; and toward comprehensive reform, through systematic enquiry into teaching and learning and through a network of devoted schoolmen and scholars who can create the conditions for fondamental change in the education of children.

27. Having noted the forces demanding change in education to be basically four - the student, parents, teachers and society, the session noted that parents and students directed their protests to the schools rather than departments of education; and while society directed it's protests to educational systems for failing to prepare students for a useful and productive role in society, teachers and administrators deplored their lack of preparation for the problems that confront them particularly in the cities and look to the educators for new and helpful resources to ease their problems. Against this background, the session intended to offer help to teachers, teacher trainers, college tutors/lecturers and educators in:

- clarifying, educational goals being sought;
- reviewing and appraising tools and technology available to them.
- reviewing the nature and dynamics of classroom teaching
- the development of philosophy of teaching,
- relating to the community and school environment as to use it
- as a natural resource base;
- identifying and developing
  the professional competence of the teacher, his skills, knowledge attitudes prejudices, and personality and his ability to deal with teaching problems.

28. In specific terms the objectives of teacher education session were:

(i) to review the development of teacher education, problems and constraints, organizational issues and influences on teacher education;

(ii) to review the status, effectiveness and operational modalities of teaching and learning, and professional ethics of teaching;

(iii) to exchange ideas, information and data on methods and techniques of teaching; evaluation of student learning, on planning and programming of school work, and on improving learning and teaching

"III Content of the Workshop

29. In pursuance of the above mentioned objectives, the content of the Workshop was as follows:

A Educational Administration

(1) Educational Administration

(a) Definition of concepts;
(b) Education function
(c) Principles of organization

(2) Managerial and organizational styles

(a) The managerial process approach
(b) Management functions and time management
(c) Organizational responsibilities
(d) Leadership styles.

(3) Management of educational reforms

(a) Initiating educational reforms
(b) Major strategies for innovating reforms
(c) Parent/community involvement in education.

(4) Education and Development

(a) Concepts and definitions
(b) Major issues in education.

(5) Educational Planning

(a) Definition of concepts
(b) Policies and objectives of education plan.

(6) Curriculum Development

Concepts, its development, emplementation and evaluation.

B. Teacher Education

(1) What is Teacher Education?

(a) Teacher education defined
(b) Current and future trends in teacher education.

(2) Approaches to teacher education and training

(3) Influences on teacher education

(a) Major influences on teacher education
(b) The teachers responsibilities.

(4) Improving teaching and teacher education

IX. Workshop Proceedings

30. On the basis of the foregoing Workshop content, presentations on each topic were made by the resource persons in plenary sessions followed by general and group discussions. What follows is an account of deliberations in the major issues covered followed by observations, conclusions and recommendations made/drawn during plenary sessions, group discussions or the evaluation of the Workshop.

A. Educational Administration

31. The Workshop reviewed the generic term "administration in the context of public and business administration as distinct from educational administration. During this review it was noted that the dictionary defined the verb "administer" as: to govern, rule, control, or direct; to manage affairs as a steward or executor to tender or give out (as an oath or medicine; to operate, make something work; to minister (to the needs of someone): where as a classical terms, the executives who engaged in the adminestrative process are supposed to plan, organize, direct, coordinate, review and budget.

32. In developing countries like Lesotho, administration is very much associated with governing, ruling, controlling and directing. But it did not necessarily have to be so: Although administration was very much associated with government. As the most obvious part of government; it is government in action; it is the execution and the operative, which is the most visible side of government.

33. Others may consider administration as an activity or process concerned with the means for carrying out prescribed ends; or that "when two men co-operate to roll a stone that neither could have moved alone, the rudiments of administration have appeared".

34. It was pointed out that in these definitions, the common elements relative to the definition of administration appear to be:

(a) the ends and purposes
(b) the means
(c) co-operation; and
(d) action/activity.

35. On the basis of these elements, everybody from a housewife to a scientist would claim to be an administrator because all of them have goals and ends to which they aspire, they engage in some form of activity and use some means to attain those goals. But such a view leads to the beliefe that administration was a non-discipline requiring incidental responsibility rather than a full-time job requiring specialised skills.

36. The Workshop reiterated the view that administration was a "universal phenomenon. As a concept and as a process, it can be said to exist in government, in business, in churches, mosques, in families and in other group interactions". If administration was to be taken as a field of specialization, then it was necessary to bring in another concept of great concern to administrators - the concept of efficiency. A difference must be drawn between "efficient" and "inefficient" means of achieving particular ends or goals. In bringing this distinction another concept was introduced, namely, that of management.

37. The Workshop also considered the view that some scholars administration and management as being synonymous and could be used interchangeably; but "where a distinction was made, administration generally refered to top executive functions, while management related to the process of operational supervision or

collectively to those people who engage in supervision at various levels". The difference between the two terms was put in diagramatic form as in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Differences between Management and Administration

	Management	Administration
(a) Preoccupation	Results-oriented, chenge	Survival, statusquo
(b) Orientation	Achievement enter-preneurial, risk-taking innovative, dynamic	Stability, risk-avoidance mistakes-avoidance, self-preservation
(c) Frame of mind	Adventure, curiosity, pro-active, trouble-anticipating	Fear of trouble, fear of the unknown, retroactive (fire-fighting)

38. The workshop concluded that whereas the terms "administration" and "management" were sometimes used interchangeably, they nevertheless, did have different connotations. In general, management was seen as a positive, opportunity seeking and change oriented concept: whereas administration connoted a greater degree of passivity and orientation towards the status quo.

39. Administration was usually thought of as accepting goals from outside the system, as depending upon resources from other systems. and being instructed in the use of means. Management on the other hand, was usually thought of as developing goals within the systems using resources over which the system had control, and being free in the use of means. Receiving the authority from outside (or above) and referring its decisions and results elsewhere. Administration was self-contained and acted as a principal rather than as agent. Over the years, this distinction had become less sharp, because public administration was no longer concerned with "maintenance" and "implementation" but also with the formulation of goals in the context of given environments. The growing use of "public management" underscores the view of he public administrator as a manager with an enterpreneurial and decision-making role.

40. Whatever definition one chose the participants felt that such a definition must involve in varying degrees elements of governance; implementation and efficient allocation of resources. Any action may be termed administrative if it is directed to the analysis of policies, the identification of options, the implementation of programmes and the allocation of resources. It must also take into account the enduring and the changing goals

of the organization as well as the environment in which the action takes place.

41. In the broadest sense, therefore, administration was concerned with policy analysis, the identification of options, programme implementation; and with the allocation of resources.

42. Public Administration was a specific branch in administration; and as such it assumed a narrower meaning. Public administration was mainly concerned with the marshalling of financial human, material time and information resources in order to achieve the objectives of public policy. It may also be seen as the coordination of individual and group efforts to carry out public policy and was mainly occupied with the daily work of government. In fact one can say that public administration was "government in action".

43. In ordinary and common usage,public administration meant the activities of the executive branches of national, regional and local governments, independent boards and commissions set up by the national, regional or provincial legislatives or governments. Despite this definition, it may be argued that public administration differed substantially from business administration in the following manner:

1. The goals pursued by public administration were different from those of business administration. Whereas the former generally fulfiled non-economic, socio-political ends, the later embarked on economic objectives and, specifically, was interested in profit maximisation;

2. Public administration implemented public policies and satisfied collective aspirations. In contrast, business administration implemented private policies and administered to private, corporate interests;

44. Having defined and analysed administration in general, public and business administration, the participants concluded and agreed that as applied in educational practice, administration may be defined as the direction, control and management of educational systems, schools, colleges departments and other educational institutions. In some countries like England, educational administration referred to the direction control and management of school systems above individual school level, i.e. at local education authority or at national level.

45. According to this definition therefore, it may be said that there were a number of crucial elements of administration among which are planning, organization, controlling and direction.

(i) Planning: which involves the setting of goals in advance of an educational plan and what the ultimate goals of the system should be;

(ii) Organization: which involves utilising the human resources, and the construction (creation) of structures in relation to human resources and physical structures and the economy.

(iii) Controlling: this is the taking of corrective action so that objectives are attained according to plan. It also involves adjustment of goals, evaluation, monitoring of the programmes and coordinating the various activities in logical manner so as to create harmony between various sectors of the educational system.

(iv) Direction: Administration has a leadership role exhibited in three basic ways: 1. Commanding, usually it is done by a military establishment or by a headmaster in a school.

2. Actuating, which is a passive way in which instructions are left to staff without the administrators spending much energy.

3. Motivation through encouraging subordinates to work willingly.

(b) Management Vs Administration

46. The old conception viewed management as being concerned with resources and money while administration was concerned with non-profit making organization i.e. the public sector. There are at present three views on management and administration viz:

1st View: stated that administration was above management and was concerned with the leadership. The view considered managers as functional officers. For example, in the university, administration was left to the vice-chancellor while the management was left to technical and professional staff like the head of department, catering officers, Bursar etc. The administration was usually political, psycodrama and spoke for every aspect of the institution.

2nd View: regarded management as administration. It regarded managers as institutional leaders while administrators were concerned with the process of directing. The arguments used to support this were the same as those of the first view only that management has been switched to administration.

3rd View: regarded management and administration as synonymous. In fact most books did not give definitions which made each one different from the other. In many books they were used frequently and inter-changebly.

(c) Educational Administration as a Distinct Field

47. Educational administration was different from other administration in that it was a non-profit making activity and

hence differed from Business Administration. The main purpose of educational administration was that the education system was a non-profit making organization, Labour intensive and dominated by professionals.

48. The control of a non-profit making organization was easier than that of the profit making organization in the private sector. This was so because in the Educational organization the goals were amorphorous and were not easy to quantify while those of the business organization were for profit. In the educational system there was professionalism and decisions were more collegeal

(d) Principles of Administration

49. In examining the principles of administration it was pointed out that these principles differed greatly from scientific principles in that they were flexible and were used loosely. The following were some elements of administration as put forward by what was known as the UNIVERSAL School of Administration which stated that the principles were universal and could be applicable to any organisation independent of culture etc. and could be used as guides for action.

Some of these principles were:

(i) There should be authority and every organization should be hierachical.

(ii) There should be division of labour among staff.

(iii) There should be separation of personnel from organisational property.

(iv) There should be order in whatever is being done.

(v) There should be impersonality of administrative actions and dealings.

(vi) There should be some degree of centralisation and decentralisation in the organisation.

(vii) There should be span of control i.e. a manager can only be able to supervise a limited amount of subordinates say 5 or 10.

(viii) There should be principle of exception, i.e. the top management should deal with exceptional matters. Daily routine decisions should be left to the subordinates.

(ix) Initiative and team spirit should be encouraged.

A few criticisms were raised in respect of these principles:

(i) That the views may be considered to be too mechanistic and lacking human element.

(ii) That they are no longer functional e.g. the hierarchical approach is less effective in a University.

(iii) The number of subordinates does not matter; e.g. geographical factors could play a role and it is possible to supervise more than 10 to 15 subordinates who are close together and doing the same type of job.

50. However, all the principles are partially applicable and could be used in educational administration in Lesotho.

(e) Principles of Organization and Education Function

51. In considering the principles of organization, the Workshop emphasized the fact that school was a social institution created by society to serve its needs; and as such the nature and character of education should ought to be taken into account in organizing school and institutional organizations.

52. Thus the participants emphasized the views that:

- The education function was an essential and integral part of the total culture; and its purposes in the broadest sense should be in harmony with the developing cultural patters.

- Education as a function was a constant in all cultures. However, its specific objectives, extent, method and its institutional organization should be considered as a current and transitory expression.

- Education in the ever changing democratic culture must be ideal in outlook and dynamic in practice, extreme care must constantly be taken to recognize the inevitability of change, to guard against a too narrow concept of education activity, and to avoid the inculcation of concepts of social stratification and cultural inflexibility growing out of individual narrowness and flexibility.

- The African public school was conceived as a classless, impartial, non-partian, non-sectarian agency through which all children may receive instruction. It is a common meeting place for the harmonization of those cultural differences which otherwise create social conflict and group cleavage.

53. It was concluded that the general purpose of education should be to prepare the individual in society to live most usefully in accord with his inborn caparities and capabilities. In a democratic social organization this general purpose was achieved through processes of education that enabled him:

a) to understand and to live in harmony with his total environment;

b) to develop a sense of social responsibility in the use of acquired skills;

c) to understand and desire to participate in the continuing improvement of the culture;

d) to nderstand and to be capable of harmonizing cultural differences, and

e) to develop understanding of the need for lasting peace based on a stable international society.

54. In spite of these, however, the general view of the Workshop was that:

(i) The education function was so complex that it was accomplished through a number of institutions, agencies and activities of which the formally organized public school was only one important agency. Cooperation with other education and social agencies was essential to the realization of desirable outcomes and coordination of the cultural programme.

(ii) The importance of education in the maintenance and improvement of the organization and ideals of a democratized culture demanded that the public school be protected from interruption by the avoidable effects of economic depressions by the high emotions and vagaries of partisan political change.

(iii) The African school, conceptually an impartial social agency, operates on a consensus and will always be subject to criticisms by both reactionary and radical opinion.

(iv) The African school was an extension of the home, through specific delegation of power to each state by a public act of the citizens; it represented a partnership between the parent and the state, necessitating the active interest and intelligent participation of parents in the education programme, as well as necessitating the responsibility of education organization to the people.

55. It was therefore, concluded that the character, extent and quality of education in many countries were largely determined by the broader national and social needs and were dependent upon the general level of the economic productivity of the nation. Hence parents, the community and the state have the responsibility to provide for the education of the youth both in terms of welfare and finance.

B. Managerial and organizational styles

56. In presenting this topic, it was pointed out that many organizations operated in varying environments. Such variation may derive directly from within the organization and its members. People differed a great deal in many respects and such differences among people in their approaches to their jobs called for differing managerial styles; and that different jobs called for differing managerial styles. To this extent there were consistencies within companies, certain styles tended to be pervasive in which case one would talk about organizational styles which were strongly influenced by top management and by the prevailing organizational climate, particularly by the value and reward structure components of that climate. Managerial and organizational styles in turn exerted a great deal of influence on policy and strategy formulation and implementation.

57. One approach to dealing with the managerial style question was through the analysis of operational, environmental and managerial jobs. Once a knowledge of the range of managerial functions was developed, variations in the extent to which different managers emphasized certain functions and the appropriateness of such an emphasis to the particular situation can be examined.

58. The approach to the analysis of managerial work with the longest history was the management process approach, which viewed management in terms in planning, organizing, and other similar functions. For many years this approach was almost entirely theoretical in nature, and the variety and number of functions considered really important in managerial work varied markedly from one theorist to another. More recently a solid underpinning of research had been developing, and certain managerial functions had been identified as playing a central role.

These primary functions were as follows:

1. planning - including the planning of organiation structures and decision making;

2. organizing;

3. staffing;

4. directing or supervising;

5. coordinating;

6. controlling - including evaluating and investigating for control purposes;

7. reviewing to determine the extent to which operations were effective and efficient; and

8. budgeting.

59. It has been found that managers did spend considerable time in staffing budgetting, reviewing etc. and representing, although the emphasis on those of representing was not sufficient to justify classifying representing as primary.

60. An alternative way of looking at managerial work has recently been developed by regarding the managerial job as providing some valuable insights into managerial styles and differential approaches to policy formulation. The essence of this managerial work roles approach is shown in Table 2:

Ten Managerial Work Roles

Table 2:

Role	Description	Typical Activities
1. Interpersonal Roles		
Figurehead	Symbolic head; performs routine duties of a legal or social nature	Ceremony, status requests.
Leader	Responsible for motivation of subordinates and training	Almost all managerial activities involving subordinaters
Liaison	Maintains network of outside contacts to obtain favors and information	Handling mail, external board work, telephone calls
2. Information Roles		
Monitor	Seeks and receives information to obtain through understanding of organization and environment	Reading periodicals observational tours
Disseminator	Transmits information received from outsiders or insiders to other organization members	Forwarding mail, review sessions with subordinates
Spokesman	Transmits information to outsiders on organization plans policies, actions	Board meetings, handling mail
3. Decisional Roles		
Entrepreneur	Initiates and supervises design of organizational improvement projects ad opportunities arise	Strategy and review review sessions regarding change efforts

Disturbance handler	Responsible for corrective action when organization faces unexpected crisis	Strategy and review sessions regarding disturbances
Resource allocator	Responsible for allocation of human, monetary, and material resources	Scheduling, requests for authorization, budgeting
Negotiator	Responsible for representing the organization in bargaining and negotiations	Collective bargaining, purchasing

61. Another approach is to see the polarities of managerial temperament with the realist reacting to the problem; the idealist reflecting on the problem; the opportunist vacillating between idealism and realism in operating style; and the reconciler integrating the contradictory traits of idealism and irealism.

ORGANIZATIONAL STYLES

62. When managerial styles coalesce into a meaningful pattern at the upper levels of an organizations, it is possible to speak of an organizational style. Not all organizations posses sufficient integration of managerial styles to specify an organizational style, although where there has been an extended history of interaction among a reasonably stable group of managers, some semblance of a characteristic style usually does develop. Beyond this, however, the nature, the degree of integration, and the extent of it with organizational demands can vary tremendously from one company to another.

Variations of Organizational Style

63. The underpinning of an organizational style is some type of organizational ideology, value structure, or climate. Among the functions thus performed are:

1. Specifying goals and values toward which effort should be directed and by which success and growth should be measured.

2. Prescribing the social contract between individual and organization - what each is and is not supposed to do.

3. Indicating how control should be exercised over behaviour that is and is not legitimate.

4. Establishing which qualities and characteristics of people should be valued or rewarded and which should not.

5. Designating how people in the organization should treat each other competitively, honestly, distantly, and so on.

6. Providing guides to appropriate methods for dealing with the external environment.

64. One typology of organizational styles based on variations in these factors is to examine the four alternative styles as follows:

1. Power Orientation. Such an organization attempted to dominate and control its environment. It made every effort to avoid control by external law or power, and within the organization those who have power strive to use it.

2. Role Orientation. Such an organization attempted to be as rational and orderly as possible. The major concern was with legality, legitimacy, and responsibility.

3. Task Orientation. Such an organization devoted its energies to achieving a superordinate goal. The crucial consideration was that structure, functions and activities are all evaluated in terms of contribution to some such goal as for instance profit.

4. Person Orientation. Such an organization existed almost entirely to serve the needs of its members. Person oriented organizations were evaluated as tools by their members. As a result, many had a short life because they outlived their usefulness to members.

65. It is apparent that different organizational styles among those proposed were differentially effective in alternative internal and external environments.

(e) Types of Authority

There are three types of authority:

(i) Charismatic authority was vested in gift of grace and usually fades away with time.

(ii) Traditional authority was ascribed, but was not in modern society.

(iii) Legal-rational authority: was based on objective criteria and was governed by rules and laws. (f) Leadership styles

66. Administration depended on leadership styles and how one perceived authority and how such authority was exercised. There was three types of leadership styles:

(i) Authoritarian: which tended to be commanding, it was imperious, forceful and in this case decision was made by one person and passed down to the sabordinates.

(ii) Democratic: which tended to allow participation while the manager was only confined to making the decision.

(iii) Laisser-faire: which did not give any direction but only coordinated and did not tell one what to do.

(g) Attitudes towards Institutional Change

The following were the types of attitudes of the leadership:

(i) Innovators - who only initiated change and were what could be called curtain-raisers.

(ii) Developers who did not know how to start but once an idea was started they were always keen to develop it.

(iii) Maintainer - who were the bureaucrats who would like to see things as they are.

(iv) Power-brokers - who were the ones who campaigned for power and resources to see the programmes.

(v) Father/Mother - who were the ones who maintained a parental e.g academician's status; or a fatherly status.

(h) Authority V/S Responsibility

67. The difference between the two words was that in responsibility the person was charged with a task to do and is duly authorised to carryout this task and had to respond to authority and had to be accountable, while one with the authority had the formal power to command those responsible.

Time Management

68. The Work hop also looked at the way personnel used official time. It was noted that time was a unique resource that represented a limiting factor in all organizations. Time was priceless, punishable and irreplaceable. Time was also money; and if not well utilized resulted in heavy loses for organizations. The management of time was therefore a very vital issue for all managers as organizations could be more effective if its employees devoted all their official working hours in its interests.

69. The term corporate time applied to specified working hours in an organization: in Lesotho for instance, corporate time for most organizations stretched from 8 a.m. to 4 p.m. with a one hour lunch break between 12 a.m. and 2 p.m. Some countries operate a one stretch working period with no breaks. Realized corporate time was that portion of corporate time which an employee spent for the performance of official tasks. The difference between corporate time and realized corporate time was personalized or wasted corporate time. This refer to the time

used by the employee in pursuing personal interests. Such as social engagements, reading newspaper, indulging in private telephone conversations, or just procrastinating.

70. Many people in an organization used time improperly through unauthorized tasks, e.g. taking children to school; through idling; non-punchuality absenteeism; lateness or simply being unproductive.

71. The participants felt that educational staff should be fully conscious of time, not just to set a good example but to maximize its use.

72. Those engaged in teaching should always be conscious of time to ensure that programmes in schools were treated fairly. It was not just the presence of teachers or personnel that matters, but how one used the time available. Many educators ought to be aware of this fact.

C. Management of Educational Reforms

73. During the presentation on this topic, it was emphasized that schools were established institutions of society to serve society's needs. Society did not remain static, and therefore institutions established and developed to serve society should change in conformity with society's changing needs.

74. The Workshop observed that one of the policy objectives of the Government of Lesotho was to improve the system by education management particularly for primary and secondary schools. For instance, the existing organization of Education secretaries and school managers on the one hand and a weak inspectorate on the other, meant that schools were not guided, supervised and administered properly. To improve this situation it was felt that clear statement of policy objectives by the Government had to be specified. These objectives should be widely circulated and should be backed by specific regulations on standards to be achieved for the organization and administration of schools. Often executive action was not taken quickly due to inefficient administrative structures. In this regard, it was important that reforms should take place place at all levels of the educational system.

75. The Workshop therefore, identified three strategies in the management of educational reforms. These strategies were not necessarily applicable to Lesotho, but to as many developing countries as possible. These strategies were sigled out as: the power-coercive; the rational-emperical and the normative-re-educative.

76. The three major strategies in the management of educational reforms were discussed as follows:

(a) Power-coercive strategy

77. This strategy was used in a highly centralized educational system. Decisions in such a system were taken at a very high level and channelled downwards through the bureaucratic hierarchy. People were only told of what has to be done and they had no say in this matter e.g., the introduction of productive work in Zambia was a case in point or the abolition of modern Mathematics in Malawi and Nigeria.

(b) Rational-Emperical Strategy

78. The rationale for this strategy lay in the fact that the capacity for introducing changes in education was present at all levels of the educational system. It worked on the basis that men were rational and accepted the change and acted in accordance with self interest, but the authorities encourage creative groups and individuals and a two-way communication channel.

(c) Normative-re-educative strategy

79. In this strategy the first step required the re-education of staff through training procedures. Modifications were made to pre-service training of teachers and in-service training courses were mounted to acquaint teachers with the changes envisaged in the syllabus, new methodologies, the new roles and new relationships to be fostered in the school system. In this way, all those engaged in the educative process was kept aware of what was going on and of what to do.

(d) Conditions for the Success of Administrative Reforms

80. Administrative Reform was to be a part of the overall policies of the government. It had to be carefully planned, taking into account the necessary investment and all the resources and facilities it had to have in order to achieve its objectives, including the organization and its location, authority and responsibility; the rules and precedures to carry it out. It should, moreover, be a continuing activity if lasting benefits are to be derived from it.

81. Requiring special mention was the need for having people with experience and training in management service work. They should have an open mind for new ideas and an infectious enthusiasm for simplifying and improving ways of doing things. They should have a passion for anonymity and possessed of the highest integrity and an attitude of humility based on a proper appreciation of their role as advisors, technicians and service men. Such people must have tact, sound judgement, patience, abundant common sense, and above all they must be persistent and have curiosity and enthusiasm, otherwise they will not last the day.

82. There is no doubt that encouragement and positive support of the management team and understanding and co-operation of all public servants are basic to the success of the programme. This

can take several and varied forms such as the creation of a district/regional administrative programme.

83. Overall development required not only the initial consent of the government but also continuing and purposeful attention at the highest political level. Indeed, a high standard of leadership, sustained and continuing attention, and sizeable commitment in terms of men, money, materials, and machines - in fact all the human energies and other resources of the country are required. The Head of Government, Ministers, and other Heads of agencies should take an enlightened interest and give vigorous support for the effort. In addition, the senior staff of the career service should stimulate the formulation and implementation of improvement measures and train their sub- ordinates in the value and proper use of new or modern procedures, techniques, and practices. Hence, leadership is equally demanded of the political leaders and the senior officials of the civil service.

84. Some of the points emphasized in the discussions on this topic were that whereas many of the conditions for educational reforms may be present in Lesotho, there was an apparent lack of urgency for reform implementation by the Ministry of Education. For instance, the Government had accepted the findings and recommendations of the Task Force Report published in 1982; but up until 1987 (five years later), very little had been done to implement the recommendations. Consultations on the Report was to start in September 1987 and it will be some time before the recommendations could be translated into action.

85. Indeed, the implementation of reforms had never proved an easy matter anywhere in Africa or the world. In this regard, caution being exercised by the Government of Lesotho was a virtue.

D. Education and Development

86. In presenting this topic it was pointed out that education was a central element in development, in fact a major factor in national development. However, since the independence of Lesotho, educational growth had failed to achieve a more equitable distribution of income and social services; and an equilibrium between the production capacity of educational systems an the absorptive capacity of the labour markets.

87. Emphasis was placed on the fact that development had a purpose and that purpose was liberation of man. This meant expanding the country's production capacities and capability, expanding the number of goods and services to meet the needs of the state, community and the individual so as to make the lives of men and women more fruitful.

88. In placing man at the centre, emphasis was being placed on the basic human needs definition of development i.e. that

development was concerned with satisfying basic human needs of individuals in society viz:

(a) personal consumer goods - food, clothing, housing etc.;

(b) general access to such physical and social services as good water supply, communication, preventive curative medicine; and education;

(c) physical, human and technological infrastructure and capacity necessary to produce those goods and services;

(d) productive employment of individuals, families and communal units yielding high enough output and fairly distributed rewards so that they earn incomes sufficient to enable them to benefit from the supply of goods and services;

(e) mass participation in decision making, including revision of laws, general strategy formulation, control of leadership and also in the carrying out of decisions.

89. This approach to development in trying to fulfil the basic human needs underlies the significance of education in three interrelated ways:

1. As a basic human need for the acquisition of knowledge, skills, attitudes, values etc. required for a productive life;

2. As a means for meeting other basic needs e.g. nutrition, clean drinking water, health services, food, clothing, and shelter. These can be achieved through education but at the same time, good food and better nutrition can improve the learning capacity of individuals.

3. As an activity, education sustains and accelerates development. Through education nations prepare and train skilled workers to manage capital and technology and for service in all sectors of the economy. Experience has shown that investment without the accompaniment of human knowledge and skills does not yield the expected results, but that through trained personnel and development methodologies, education facilitates the advancement of knowledge in pure and applied fields.

90. Education also raises the consciousness of people in dealing and coping with the environment. Education also helps in the transformation of relationship between individual and society consequent upon the rapid economic growth and the technological change. But education is most effective in doing all these in a situation where several inter-related policies and programmes fostering social and economic development are at work simultaneously.

91. Education, it must be emphasized, is not just a sector of development at national level parallel to agriculture or

industry, but is a pervasive element requiring integration both horizontally and vertically into all national development efforts. As a pervasive element its content and form must be diverse.

92. General education was as essential to attaining general development objectives as training development was essential in the acquisition of specific skills. Both education and training are essential to change and therefore it was essential to invest both in education and training as in other fields to ensure the use of knowledge and skills in a growing economy. It can be said that equity in education and national economic development were mutually consistent in that an increase in rural education tended to lead to improved agricultural methods and hence to productivity.

I. Major issues facing African education development

The major issues facing African education development are:

(a) large numbers still lack basic education and the rates of illiteracy are still very high for many countries;

(b) the existence of limited educational opportunities for the majority of the population;

(c) educational inefficiencies keep both number of students in school and the quality received by those students much below what the available resources might permit;

(d) external inefficiency _2/ in as far as the products of the educational systems are unable to find employment or are less productive;

(e) lack of well managed systems and disorientation toward research to cope with multifarious problems of development.

93. Today, much of the concern in education had been for social equity; for the development of science teaching; for the improvement of the internal and external efficiency of the school system; for the relevance of education to national needs; and for the building of national capacity for management and research in education. Indeed the three issues of major concern have been relevance of education, the use of national language, and the institutionalization of educational development.

94. These major issues make it necessary for us to plan education.

Most countries plan their social and economic activities in order to:

_2/External efficiency refers to the effect of education on economic and social development in the community at large.

(1) offset uncertainty and change;

(2) focus attention on objectives;

(3) gain or obtain economical operation of pgorammes and activities, and

(4) facilitate control of programmes and activities.

95. In the discussion following this presentation, the Workshop focused attention on the problems of educational development in Lesotho. Among the issues discussed were, for instance, the issue of overcrowding in schools, and the unsuitability of the curriculum to national needs. The participants felt that it was not just enough to say that more schools should be built without saying how such provision of schools could be done i.e. where the financial resources would come from for both capital and recurrent costs.

96. In particular the participants discussed issues relating to:

(a) the unsuitability of the curriculum to the socio-economic development of the Kingdom of Lesotho;

(b) too much emphasis being placed on formal rather than on non-formal education, and on general education rather than technical/vocational education;

(c) the terminal dead-end nature of education at the first and second levels of education for the majority of the pupils without the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes for productive life;

(d) increasing trek of school leavers to towns and cities in South Africa in search of employment away from the hard conditions of rural life;

(e) the insufficiency of available jobs to absorb school leavers and university graduates in a country whose economy is very much dependent on South Africa.

97. There were many proposals put forward for dealing with some of these issues. In particular, the participants made proposals for dealing with the following:

(i) <u>The unsuitable curriculum</u>

- that greater emphasis should be placed on equipping students with the relevant skills and attitudes rather than theoretical knowledge.

- There should be more practical teaching-learning experiences in schools than what operates now. In fact, some of the participants felt that this could be dealt with if a move was

made to do away with external examinations i.e. the Cambridge Oversea School Certificate which is still being taken up to now.

- The balance between general and technical/vocational education should be altered i.e. putting more emphasis on the practical skills rather than general knowledge.

- The introduction of a polyvalent education with emphasis on scientific, natural, social, technical and technological disciplines, arts and crafts and on education for self-employment and income generation; and

- a more effective use should be made of instructional materials.

(ii) Insufficiency of available jobs

98. As regards solutions for counter-acting the insufficiency of available jobs, those put forward by the participants were:

- The Government should as far as possible institute measures to discourage employers from attaching too much importance on paper qualifications rather than on practical knowledge and skills. There was a wide spread feeling that anyone with a masters degree or a Ph.D. will perform better than one with a bachelors' degree. Hence in a country short of jobs; those with post-graduate qualifications had an advantage over those with a first degree.

- encourage on-the-job training after pupils have had a basic education and are unable to continue.

- Introduce programmes and schemes for intermittent education based on part-study and part work arrangements i.e. studying while working and working while studying.

Put more imphasis on practical education and introduce productive work into school activities.

- Greater emphasis should be placed on education and training for self employment rather expecting salaried jobs upon completion of school.

- More emphasis on vocational/technical oriented education with greater emphasis on practical skills considered critical for national development.

99. Following from this discussion the Workshop then considered planning as a tool for solving some of these problems.

E. Educational Planning

100. In presenting this topic, educational planning was defined as "the application to education of what real education sought to instil in students, namely a rational scientific approach to

educational problems": the view that educational planning was not an end in itself, but a means to achieving national stated objectives was emphasied; in which case it was important for an educational planner to be provided with national policy guidelines and to be aware of the development objectives of the country; the national education objectives and government policies in general on education, the economy, finance, development etc.

101. It was however, emphasized that a good education plan could only be produced if the aims and objectives of education were clearly defined in which case the ultimate impact of educational planning should be felt in the classroom and in the contribution education made to society. In planning eduation, the needs and opinions of the clients and beneficiaries had to be taken into account, and education served the purpose for which it was intended if it ministers to the needs of its clients and society.

102. Since planning was based on clear objectives, the need to revise these objectives in the light of developments and changes taking place at national level was considered inevitable and crucial to educational planners. However, it was noted that the absence of clear objectives or their vagueness and incoherence often had serious consequences on educational planning leading to unfulfilled targets.

103. It was pointed out that educational planning was not an easy matter because there were internal aims for the development of education proper on the one hand; and on the other, there was the external goal of the educational undertaking which was reflected in the integration of educational planning in over-all economic, social and national planning. Further complication arose from the fact that there were these objectives which could not be expressed in terms of quantity nor could they be easily expressed for implementation purpose e.g. the promotion of attitudes to development, freedom, creativity and fulfilment of the individual, or international understanding.

104. In spite of these problems, a case for the existence of clear objectives for educational planning purposes was put forward as follows:

(i) that without well formulated objectives, an educational system would be wandering about like a lost ship without its compass;

(ii) That a nation's educational objectives reflects society's idea of its own future and should therefore be decided upon by the society as a whole and its chosen leaders in all walks of life.

(iii) The idea of the future should embrace basic human values, ethical, cultural and aesthetic, and also the various roles the

individual will be required to play in society as a citizen, a worker, and a member of a family.

(iv) In translating these over-all goals into educational objectives, those responsible for educational planning and the development of education should help and take a leading role.

(v) Planners can also help by insisting that there should be reasonable consistency and an order of priorities among the stated objectives, since not all objectives can be pursued at full speed simultaneously. Priorities should be clearly spelt out.

105. Following this presentation, participants reviewed some of the educational and development objectives in Lesotho. It was agreed that the overall objectives of education can be found in the country's constitution; the general development plan of the country i.e. Lesotho's Five-Year Plan; in public pronouncements by politicians; policy statements from the Ministry of Education; information meetings, debates and surveys such as the well-known "Education Sector Survey" of the Task Force produced in 1982.

106. In this regard, the Workshop emphasized the fact that Lesotho's First Five-Year Plan tended to take a manpower approach to education development because it was felt that the Basotho people needed to execute the development programmes on their own. However, since there was a serious shortage of secondary school graduates with the necessary qualifications especially in mathematics and sciences, to go on to technical and higher education, it was absolutely necessary to increase quality outputs at both primary and secondary school levels not necessarily through the expansion of schools, but through effective utilization of existing resources. This could be done through upgrading teacher skills by having more inservice courses, improved teaching etc.

107. In terms of content of education, the national policy envisaged the strengthening of the teaching of agriculture and home economics at the secondary level to widen a narrowl academic curricula, and the teaching of mathematics and science at both primary and secondary levels. To ensure that teachers are well prepared for their tasks, the government abolished seven small colleges and consolidated them into one college, now the National Teacher Training College of Lesotho which would train both primary and secondary school teachers.

108. Broad statements of development and educational goals lead the educational planner to an articulation of more specific objectives for the various sectors of the educational system. The education plan is then based on those specific objectives which derive their origin from general development and educational objectives.

109. The discussions further emphasized the view that current educational planning in Lesotho was dominated by the manpower

requirements approach complemented by the social, cultural and historical considerations. The usefulness of this approach for curriculum planning was limited by the uncertainties concerning the relationship between particular occupations and the education they require. This limitation became even more serious when deriving educational requirements from manpower requirement forecasts. For instance, changes in technological processes may require a change in the educational input for particular occupations while changes in content and methods of education affects the educational input for the relevant occupations. In this regard, participants felt that it was necessary to:

(a) study the functioning of the educational process as a prerequisite for the co-ordination of the curriculum planning with manpower planning;

(b) examine factors such as the appeal which the several curricula have upon students e.g. a heavier preference by students for arts and social sciences at the expense of mathematics and science necessitate a revision of manpower forecasts and constraints in this sector may again lead to a revision of the curriculum;

(c) make use of more refined manpower forecasting techniques than are actually in use today; in particular the availability of long, medium or short terms forecasts; and

(d) make a regular evaluation of the relevance of curricula to the educational input into the labour market.

110. In the light of the uncertainties inherent in the manpower forecasting requirements, the Workshop came to the conclusion that education policy makers should as far as possible adapt the content and teaching to the new situation of a labour market whose requirements are forever changing in line with technological changes. The answer to the problem does not therefore lie in better manpower forecasting alone but to a large extent in the responsiveness of curricula, teaching methods, content and the graduates of the system to market forces and requirements.

111. In essence, therefore, education and planning cannot divorce itself from such issues as what subjects are tought in schools, what instructional technology is available for education purposes, the textbooks and instructional materials, the role of the community in education; and what resources, (human, financial and material) are available for education development.

112. In conclusion, the Workshop felt that educational planning in Lesotho was still in early stage in that comprehensive education plans had not been fully developed covering all sectors of the system. One would have liked to see the findings and recommendations of the Task Force Report translated into a detailed and comprehensive education plan. A limiting factor as pointed

out during the Workshop was the lack of qualified personnel to engage in a matrix of educational planning.

F. Curriculum Development

113. In presenting this topic, it was emphasized that although a lot has been written about curriculum the word "curriculum" may be used in three ways viz. as a written document; as the name of a system of schooling; and as a title of a field of study.

114. First, curriculum design was defined "as the substance and organization of goods and culture content so arranged as to reveal potential progression through levels of schooling". Looked at this way, curriculum design became a focal point in all curriculum thinking.

115. Second, was a view which saw in essence "curriculum design", as statement which identified the elements of curriculum, stated what their relationships are to each other, and indicated the principles of organization and the requirement of that organization for the administrative conditions under which it was to operate.

116. Third, one may also identify curriculum design under three notions:

- as an arrangement of selected and ordered learning outcomes intended to be achieved through instruction;

- as an arrangement of selected and ordered learning experiences to be provided in an instructional situation, and - as a scheme for planning and providing learning experiences.

117. Whatever definition was given to curriculum design, it was the design characteristics which made a curriculum look the same or different. In fact there were two fundamental dimensions of curriculum design viz. the content of the curriculum i e. the total substance, the elements and the arrangement of the document; and the mode of the organization of the various parts of the curriculum -- the cultural content of the curriculum.

118. Concern during the Workshop was not so much as curriculum design, but curriculum in general. The intention was therefore to define curriculum as commonly understood by both educationists and laymen and decipher the elements which should be included in its development.

119. Curriculum was therefore defined as:

(a) whatever content is used purposely by the school as a stimulus to learning;

(b) as a sequence of potential experiences is set up in the school for the purpose of disciplining children and youth in

group ways of thinking and acting. This set of thinking is referred to as the curriculum;

(c) that body of value-goal-oriented learning content, existing as a written document or in the minds of teachers, that, when energized by instruction, resulted in change in learner behavour;

(d) a planned set of human encounters thought to maximize learning;

(e) curriculum was generally considered to be all of the experiences that learners have under the auspices or direction of the school;

(f) curriculum was a vital, proving and complex interaction of people and things in final setting. It encomposses questions to be debated, forces to be rationalized, goals to be illuminated, programmes to be activated, and outcomes to be evaluated, and

(g) the term curriculum included all of the experiences for which the school accepts responsibility.

120. In most of the foregoing definitions focus was on the concept of experience i.e. that the definition of curriculum was dominated by the notion of experience or learning experience. This was absolutely important in a learning situation because a learner needed to engaged himself/herself in activities so that he/she can learn something which he/she did not learn before.

121. Through activities, learners tend to recognize the consequences of what they are doing and how these relate to their present and future activities. Since only the learner can have a learning experience, teachers/instructors should create environments in which the learners will have learning experiences. The curriculum planner can only anticipate the conditions under which learners may have learning experiences. However, because the notion of experience is often substituted for activity, curriculum planners tend to set forth an array of activities as part of the curriculum being designed.

122. In the subsequent discussions, it was argued, that curriculum was a written document containing a set of activities from which learners learn something, or a set of statements about the goals, aims, objectives and expected outcomes of education and what learners have to do to achieve these. Of great importance, therefore, were the elements or features which should be included in the planning and development of a curriculum if education was to serve the needs of both the individual, society and the nation. These elements included the cultural content of the notion to be taught; a statement of the goals, aims and specific objectives of education; a statement stipulating the ways in which the curriculum was to be used i.e. by stating the relationships between the curriculum and the development of instructional strategies: i.e. from curriculum planning to

curriculum implementation; and finally an appraisal scheme for evaluating the effectiveness of the curriculum.

123. Most curricula do not have all these elements, but at least they contain one or two of them or may fall under the general umbrella of the four elements.

124. It was therefore emphasized that most nations were more concerned with curiculum planning and development at the primary and secondary levels than at the tertiary level. This was understandable considering that primary and junior secondary education are concerned with the development of basic education components of which are: communication skills and general knowledge including numeracy, literacy, cultural knowledge, values and attitudes, scientific and civic knowledge; life skills and knowledge such as nutrition, health and how to manage a household; production skills related to income generating activities; and higher skills needed by society for the delivery of other basic needs.

125. The development of these was not necessarily the prerogative of formal education but that of non-formal education as well. If non-formal education had to supplement and complement formal education in meeting basic human needs, then there was need to effectively plan non-formal education curriculum

126. Curriculum planning and development therefore even involve components although not necessarity sequential, but that they form an integrated and dynamic process vital to satisfying the basic human needs, viz.:

(i) the gathering of basic information about the context in which the changes are to take place - a detailed analysis of the present situation as a spring board for future actions;

(ii) deciding aims and objectives as pointers to where we want to go;

(iii) planning a strategy for change to ensure that resources are effectively utilized;

(iv) the process of curriculum development which involves devising the material and trying it out;

(v) implementing the curriculum in schools;

(vi) curriculum evaluation;

(vii) follow-up change to improve and modifying where necessary.

127. In the discussion which followed, it was pointed out that, while there has been a general growth of confidence in defining and developing curriculum to meet development needs, Africa was still preoccupied with specifying priorities in the primary and secondary schools curricula and the relation of these to

development needs. More important has been the pre-occupa- tion to develop the type of curricula suitable for different abilities and different contexts and a curriculum which is amenable to self-employment in a continent seriously short of salaried employment. Further, there has been very little or at least inadequate dovetailing of formal with non-formal education curricula. Not much provision has been made for a curriculum which allows for learning while working and working while learning.

128. Perhaps of more concern has been the need to develop programmes in the perspective of their implementation i.e. the need for greater effort to determine and ascertain the realities of the context in which curriculum implementation takes place. This call for an increase in research activities and research mindedness at all levels; and a new pragmatism to limit programmes and activities to what was possible in the educational context with the learners and teachers. It was very unkind of an educational system to expect teachers to teach physics, chemistry and technical subjects and to accuse students of poor achievement in science subjects and lacking technical skills in a system where there are no laboratories, science equipment and materials and no technical workshops and equipment. Many accusations of the African curricula, relate to the fact that they are failing to equip learners with the right knowledge, skills and attitudes and are unable to meet development needs. These are born out of unrealistic expectations.

129. One solution to this would be to increase efforts and commitment to training for all those engaged in the field of education: education administrators, curriculum planners and developers, educational planners; inspectors and supervisors, heads of schools and institutions, teachers, tutors, instructors, correspondance educators, extension workers, social and field workers.

130. A second solution would be to invest more in the process of curriculum implementation and follow-up even if this meant realizing economies in one sector of the system at the expense of another. For instance many countries put greater emphasis in pre-service training at the expense of in-service training, school supervision and inspection. Rather, more efforts should be spent on in-service training and supervision to ensure greater effectiveness in curriculum implementation. At the same time there should be greater concern with accountability with and curriculum planning especially in non-formal education. There are many ministries, organizations, agencies, institutions etc. with a stake in non-formal education and often without co-ordination and collaboration. No one seems accountable for their curricula.

131. Of great importance and significance in curriculum planning and development was the need to solicit national support by having national educational conferences, seminars, workshops, planning meetings and discussion meetings/groups aimed at promoting a debate on the aims, objectives, goals and purpose of

education; the broad contents of curricula; the management of schools; examinations and the training of teachers. Such meetings can produce very useful results in spite of the of financing them.

132. Another aspect would be to evolve appropriate methodologies for curriculum planning and development through a common sense approach by establishing local facilities for curriculum planning which should operate in accordance and partnership with the central or national bodies; and through a workable relationship between the school and the community in basic education.

133. More important was the need towards the development of training schemes within the African region rather than outside Africa in a variety of techniques and skills connected with curriculum development and evaluation such as writing textbook skills; textbook production and distribution, equipment production; and distribution; use of instructional materials and evaluation skills; and the development of educational technology techniques. Indeed there is need to develop skills and facilities within Africa for the production and distribution of curriculum materials.

134. In conclusion, it was emphasized that curriculum planning and development for formal or non-formal education consisted primarily of two elements viz: the content which was characterized by facts descriptive and evaluation concepts, principles, norms and rules; and the second consists of categories of instruction organized under symbolic studies, basic sciences, developmental and aesthetic studies and social problems. The first of these elements i.e. the demands of culture, the uses of knowledge and research in curriculum involving basic concepts and learning styles have great influence on general education, while the second elements greatly influence the development of cognitive, effective and psychomotor skills.

G. Assessment of the Internal Effectiveness of Educational System

135. The resource person said that another important aspect of what to assess is in respect of the various factors operating in an educational system. First, if assessment is to be undertaken with any hopes of success, the educational objectives should be concrete, pertinent, feasible consistent and quantifiable. But since there were a number of factors influencing internal effectiveness of an education system, it was preferable to concentrate on the educational content rather than on non- educative aspects. Attention should be focused on the decisive factors in internal effectiveness such as: pupils themselves; teachers and other staff; curriculum; the administration; the premises; and parents and other clients. Basically, what happens to the pupils is in essence, what happens to the education system itself i.e. the change of behaviours exhibited by the product of the system is in fact the manifestation of the educational system's external and

internal effectiveness, because effectiveness of a system means attaining the objectives previously proclaimed. However, while it is relatively easy to measure external effectiveness especially when account is taken of the fact that educational objective must go beyond the too narrow approach of the familiar equation of "education equals employment". Therefore what we assess must certainly go beyond the expected outcomes and stated educational objectives.

136. Much as clear educational objectives may be formulated select and organize learning experiences, the actual teaching involves a number of variables such as the students themselves, environmental conditions, the teacher's personality and his teaching style and the school facilities - all of which have direct influence on the learning outcomes. There is no way in which we can be sure that the expected outcomes will be fulfilled unless we institute within the educational process mechanisms to guide teachers and their teaching towards their desired goals. To make sure that the desired outcomes are attained, there is need to develop evaluation techniques so as to find out how far the learning experience as selected and organized are actually producing the desired results.

137. Evaluation was an attempt to describe, appraise and in fact influence the changes which take place rather than to analyse all the processes which bring about that change. In this way the primary role of evaluation was then considered as the systematic collection of evidence to determine whether in fact certain changes have taken place in the learners as well as to determine the extent or degree to which these changes have occured in individual students. At the same time, evaluation can be viewed as one of the major factors influencing decisions about education or training programmes. To this effect, four types of evaluation for four major types of decisions in education were identified viz:

(1) Context Evaluation: In the planning of on-going educational programmes and activities, context evaluation which is diagnostic in nature, helped to discover any discrepancies between programme goals and objectives and the actual impact of educational programmes and then to allow for planning decisions to match the intended and actual outcomes.

(2) Input Evaluation: Since we are concerned with making educational programme goals operational which have been identified and clarified by context evaluation, there is need to assess the optimal utilization of resources in relation to the results. Input evaluation helps us reach such decisions and some of the important issues which demand our concern are: the feasibility of accomplishing the goals and expected outcomes; the availability of strategies for accomplishing such goals and objectives;the potential costs of the various strategies employed to attain the goals and objectives including the advantages and disadvantages of such strategies and the probabilities of success based on past

experience; the optimal utilization of staff and other resources (financial or material) including the utilization of external resources be they for teaching or the administration of various assessment or evaluation techniques.

(3) Process Evaluation: Evaluation and assessment should provide a feedback to the managers, administrators and educators of an educational programme. The focus of such evaluation should include the assessment of interpersonal relationships, teaching logistics, and the adequacy of staff performance and facilities. Process evaluation which in this case is synonymous with formative evaluation, is used to make decisions during the course of the programme.

(4) Product Evaluation: In assessing the extent to which the anticipated outcomes have been achieved we are engaged in product evaluation or summative evaluation. The need for this evaluation is to decide whether to continue or to terminate an educational programme based on the results of our findings. If the gap between the anticipated goals or outcomes and the actual outcomes is too great, we shall be forced to adjust and make necessary changes to the programme; and if it is too small, we are encouraged to pursue the objectives as planned.

138. It was emphasized that, the primary purpose of assessment is to provide information for decisions about the programme under appraisal and that the evaluation results obtained should be not only for improving a programme but for deciding whether to terminate or continue with it. This however presupposes that the process of obtaining evaluation information does meet the appropriate criteria of objectives, reliability, validity, utility, practicability and ethical responsibility. These criteria are important considering that evaluation is a human judgement process which is usually applied to the results of programme examinations and feedback.

139. On the other hand, evaluation may be looked at as the final class of the cognitive variables as presented by Bloom in the Taxonomy of Educational objectives. It thus involves a combination of all the five behaviours - of knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis and synthesis. Evaluation then becomes making judgements about ideas works solutions, methods, materials etc. on the basis of established criteria and standards. The problem however, is that once the need for assessment has been recognised, the question is how to set about it.

140. In setting about assessment we can distinguish different forms and different moments. The different levels of assessment may be at an overall, or at an operational levels. The overall level involves the general diagnosis of the system i.e., it involves an analysis of the educational policy so that we are able to judge the choice of priorities and the general results obtaine. At the operational level assessment is concerned with the fulvilment of the objectives of a programme or project.

141. Different forms of assessment involve drawing a distinction between the internal and external effectiveness of educational systems. The former, measures performance in the light of the system itself, i.e. success in the final examinations is the primary element of internal effectiveness, although other elements such as costs in relation to results and teacher's performance ought to be taken into account too. On the other hand, when we ask "What is the good of the school?" We are assessing the external effectiveness of the system taken from different points of view - economic, social and cultural. The focus of external effectiveness is on the quality of the output of the educational systems in the light of the needs and hopes of the society and of individuals themsleves. We need to ask whether the value added to the individual by the system meets the expectations of society and individuals and whether it leads to progress in the direction of socio-economic and cultural development.

142. Different levels and forms, however, should be associated with different moments at which assessment can be made, although it should be emphasized that assessment should be a continuous process taking due cognizance of the resources needed. Yet in assessing expected outcomes of education, we are not just concerned with testing students for recognition and recall of facts, especially if the programme objectives include more than that, but we are also assessing other outcomes than mere recall of facts. Thus in the final analysis, summative evaluation instruments offer not just operational definition of the matrix of content but also behavioural outcomes of students. To select an appropriate evaluation instrument, however, entails defining something about what the student should learn and to give detailed operational definition of a sample of the problems, questions, tasks, situations etc. to which the student should be able to respond in an appropriate manner.

143. In education the process of assessment of outcomes starts with the objectives of educational programmes. The main purpose of evaluation is to determine how far the objectives so far set have actually been realized and to this end it is necessary to have assessment procedures that give evidence of the kind of behaviour implied by each of the major educational objectives. But since objectives may be classified according to their cognitive, effective and psychomotor content, assessment, procedures should be devised in such a way as to sample and test the anticipated behaviour at an appropriate level.

X. <u>Group Discussions:</u>

144. The Workshop discussed in groups a number of topics of interest to each group; the topics of which ranged from educational administration, organizational issues, educational planning, curriculum development and evaluation. These were selected from the following:

Assignment 1: Educational policies and their implications: where participants were to discuss the implications of any one or two of the following policy statements:

Discuss the implications of any one or two of the following policy statements:

(1) The present primary education cycle is seven years. It is decided to increase the primary education programme to eight years.

(2) The government has decided to increase the number of secondary school places from 10,000 in 1987 to 30,000 by 1998 and the class sizes are to be restricted to a maximum of 35.

(3) The government wants to increase its capacity to train primary school teachers from 2,000 to 5,000 residential places and also to develop a three year primary teacher education programme - without the one year of internship.

Assignment 2: Some major issues for the educational Planner where participants were to discuss and suggest measures and solutions on issues related to situations where:

(1) The programme is overloaded. There were too many topics and large numbers of pupils were hurried on to new material before they had mastered what they were studying.

(2) The demands of the programme for English language skills were unrealistic. Few pupils couldn read the English in prescribed English books, and fewer still the English in their mathematics and science books. Pupils were asked to learn to read in English before they were literate in Sesotho, with the result that they frequently mastered neither language.

(3) There was often little relationship between what pupils learnt in school and what they learn outside school.

(4) The curriculum was fragmented There was little relationship and coherence between different subjects taught in the same standards.

(5) The syllabus was too rigid There were no indications of priorities and no allowances for alternatives or local variations within prescribed limits.

(6) Cultural, creative and practical activities were undervalued.

Assignment 3: Administrative and organizational issues where participants were to discuss the implications of the following issues to planners:

(1) Secondary and high school operations will be made more rational and efficient through introducing regulations on the number of subjects taught, staffing requirements and other management guidelines.

(2) Secondary and high school curricula will be oriented toward increasing self-reliance, while giving attention to improved language skills, science and mathematics. Practical studies will be expanded.

(3) To improve school conditions, class sizes particularly for the lower grades, are to be reduced by introducing teacher aides to assist fully qualified teachers, a higher proportion of qualified teachers will be provided, instructional materials and improved school facilities are to be developed; and there is to be a much improved system of school administration, supervision and management, including greater participation of the community in school affairs.

(4) Establishing a set of standards and regulations for primary, secondary and high schools that will cover such matters as school and class size, staffing, curriculum policies on admissions and transfers; staff duties, student affairs; and school finances.

(5) Establishing a unified teaching service under a Teaching Service Commission.

145. From Assignment 1, the topic chosen relates to the move from seven to eight years of primary school education programme.

146. In discussing this topic the group felt that the policy would have serious implications for secondary, tertiary, vocational and technical and teacher education.

147. It was noted that the present year primary education system was introduced 17 years ago when the then prevailing 8 years programme was reduced to 7 years. A change from 7 to 8 years now would therefore mean that government was reversing its policy, thereby admitting that the current system had failed. Be it as it may, this policy would affect intakes to secondary schools for that year of transition and four years latter tertiary level intake would be affected; and so would outputs at the various institutions.

148. Another point highlighted by the group was that the introduction of an eighth grade in primary would require additional classrooms and teachers to take care of the extra pupils. A solution to this problem would be to introduce double shift classes from standards 1 to 3 so that teachers handling the infant classes would be responsible for more than one class.

149. It would also be possible with an 8 year primary programme to reduce secondary education to four years instead of the present five years. This would free those teachers who were

dealing with the first forms to be released of their duties so that they can go and teach standard eight classes.

150. The advantage of an eight year primary was that it allowed primary school outputs to come out of the system a little more mature to fend for themselves. At present most standard seven leavers are rather young to be productively engaged in activities for income generation.

151. The group observed that an eight year programme has serious financial implications as it allowed more pupils to stay one more year at school as compared to those in secondary schools.

152. The second group felt that, presently, the subjects taught in the primary schools were very many e.g. Lesotho - Language & Literature; Mathematics; English; Social Studies; Science and Practical Skills.

i. Social Studies for instance included History, Geography, Economics, Psychology, Civics, Bible knowledge which because of mis-orientation, teachers taught as different unrelated subject entities.

Practical Skills: through the teaching of agriculture, domestic science, sewing and knitting, arts and crafts, woodwork. The group advocated emphasizing the following:

(1) Integrated subject approach whereby subjects such as Social Studies to be geared to take into account the whole child's environment without teaching the factors of life piece-meal.

(2) Links between subjects taught had to be established wholy emphasizing their complementality: since pupils are not able to integrate the subjects themselves.

example A domestic science teacher should teach not only how to cook a certain vegetable but also touch on where the vegetable is found and its nutritious value to the body and not leave the latter two points to the agriculture and health education teachers.

(3) Prioritization of topics of closest relevance to the needs of the society for students to master content.

(4) Topics on the syllabuses should be more specific and selective with emphasis on teaching, first from the child's closest environment to the wider world - the concept of known to unknown.

(5) Only qualified teachers should teach in the lower primary levels and there should be regular organized inservice teacher training sessions for large group teaching methodology in the light of current education change and current child development levels.

(6) Curriculum planners should up date both teachers, curriculum designers and text book writers (set books and teachers guides) in integrated content and teaching approaches.

153. The group realized that pupils go through primary school without acquiring thorough knowledge because of hurried teaching.

154. To avoid hurried teaching there should be an examination for every subject taught. Practical skills should be examined by the head teacher or the subject specialist from subject panel members.

155. The group did appreciate as a fact that more often than not the present curriculum does alleviate the educated from the rest of the society the results being an encurbed rural-urban drift. It is therefore true that the present education does not prepare a mosotho child for life in Lesotho.

Suggestions/possible solutions

1. The curriculum planners/designers should relate education (school curriculum) to what applies in the society. It is important for education to be a complementary measure to the lives of the society. This can be achieved by, for example, the use of appropriate technology in schools, i.e. instead of using only electric equipment in a home economics class relevance could be achieved by also using the traditional Basotho fire places and pots and "lisiu" for baking, and using spoons for measurement as against weights and measures so as to apply school learned experiences to real home life situation.

156. In agriculture again, pupils could practice small scale tree planting, etc.

157. In Biology, teachers should be encouraged to relate their teaching to plants and animals in season so that instead of teaching about flowering plants in July and talk about plants in England this topic could be put aside to be taught during Lesotho Spring when plants in Lesotho flower.

158. This way the group hoped, cultural values and functional skills could be instilled in learners.

159. As regards cultural, creative and practical activities the group felt that the curriculum designers should include in the the school curriculum the society's cultural, creative and practical heritage; and since examinations were insensitive to learning these subjects, the subject should also be examinable. The curriculae should emphasize among others: handicrafts, poetry, arts and crafts, music, traditional dances e.g. (mokhibo and mohobelo) and handwriting. The teacher trainers should be given these cultural, creative and practical skills and they in turn should offer them to teacher trainees. Teacher trainees should also be given and updated with modern instructional technology.

A lot of research into the availability of natural and man made skills of the Basotho should be undertaken, such skills as iron smelting, traditional dances, cosmetics (beautitians), and skin/leather training. Natural fauna and flora should be preserved as an indication of national appreciation of the traditional values and cultural heritage.

There should be museums kept alive for displays of creative works by the Basotho pupils.

The third group opted to make at least 2 regulations for subjects to be taught at secondary school level including the suggested staff requirements for the schools, as well as rsuggesting the suggested management guidelines would be.

Regulations: In this regards, the group suggested the following:

1(a) There shall be 4 core subjects as follows. English, Sesotho, Mathematics and Agriculture.

Rationale English as an international language will be needed for further education and for self education through reading the wealth of education that can be found from English books.

160. Sesotho was a language ladden with the culture of the Basotho. It was their symbol of identity and a unifying element. Mathematics was subject that would help the learner understand many technical subjects as well as science subjects.

161. Agriculture was the foundation on which the country may produce a reasonable supply of food for its citizens. If properly taught to every Mosotho child, Lesotho may become less dependent on imported food as well as donated food supplies.

162. The following shall be supportive options from which the schools or the students should choose 3: Physical Science, Home Economics, Wood Work, Brick laying, History, Geography, Biology, Accounting, Religion and Development Studies.

Rational Not every Mosotho was expected to become a farmer and therefore the above options were intended to make the foundation for other branches of education possible for them.

Staffing

1. A teacher must have at least 2 teaching subjects to make staffing easier for schools

2. On the basis of the present 1 to 26 teacher pupil ratio in Lesotho secondary schools, we shall have at least 8 teachers, 1 headmaster and 1 specialist teacher to make a total of 10 teachers for a regular 200 roll per secondary school.

Management Guidelines

The group proposed the following guidelines:

1. The 3 regions - the Northern, the Central and the Southern circuits should each have at least 6 subject specialist inspectors to supervise the schools in their subjects of specialization.

2. There should be department heads in the schools who have authority to supervise staff under them. These heads should also be remunarated for their expertise.

163. The headmaster should co-ordinate the various departments in each school.

Evaluation

164. The subject specialist inspectors should help to upgrade and improve the teaching and evaluation of their subjects in their areas for strict continuous assessment. Whenever necessary, the results of continuous assessment should be taken into account in the final evaluation of secondary school students.

(a) "Reducing pupil Teacher ratio by introducing the Teacher Aide System": In discussing the issue, the group examined the qualification's of Teacher Aide and felt that the Teacher Aides could be students who are being trained as Teachers at N.T.T.C. and N.U.L. The N.T.T.C. Teacher trainees could stay in class for two years - to get as much content of their teaching subjects as possible. On their third year they could be attached to schools as Teacher Aides under the Supervision of a qualified teacher. There was, therefore, a feeling that the Ministry of Education was getting rid of internship not because they did not have money to pay their R50 a month, but the Ministry felt that they were paying for people who lacked subject content. If this was the case, the students could stay at N.T.T.C. for two consecutive years. The same applies to N.U.L. students who could stay in class for three years and be attached to schools on their four year of Training. These people would not be fully qualified teachers, but would be capable of teaching while the nation continued training them by holding workshops at strategic centres, and students could be given marks at the Workshops. In this case the Workshops would be supplementing the services ofinspectorate.

2. To provide a higher proportion of qualified teachers, the group felt that N.T.T.C. Liet could be a remedial programme and that all unqualified teachers in Lesotho must attend Liet programme.

(b) As regards the development of instructional materials and improved school facilities, it was proposed that a project-research for collection of ideas by circuits on the teaching styles in the classrooms, or run workshops for teachers would be the best idea. Community could be used as resources - whereby teachers could give students assignments while parents helped them and that there could be art exhibitions where students could excel in their creativiness with parents being encouraged to attend the exhibitions. In addition, schools could hold concerts, raffles to raise funds for buying school materials. The school could encourage voluntary contributions from the Community, - the community to build additional classrooms, road- works to the school, build latrines, and improve water supply services.

3. Could encourage pupils to join the Workcamp Associations and could help the schools to improve their school facilities.

(c) As for the development of much improved school administration system and including greater participation of the community in school affairs, it was explained that

Managers should be given education on supervision. They should also learn the teaching service regulations. There could be managers and supervisors workshops. The policy of the government could be explained to managers. The responsibilities of the standing committee and how the management committee should work could also be explained. The duties of the head teacher should be clearly defined. He could have less teaching role, which is sometimes difficult because of lack of qualified teachers.

4. Headmasters should be trained to teach other teachers. The N.C.D.C. should have control over teachers. Record keeping be maintained on the number of teachers. The training of teachers should be nationalised.....

165. The following recommendations were put forward by the Workshop participants:

1. That the Book-supply unit be evaluated to improve on it so that it becomes more helpful to the pupils - the Workshop is concerned that (a) the scheme was alleged to have inhibited learning in the schools because the pupils had no access to the books outside the class periods, etc.

2. That the secondary schools shall have heads of departments who shall be given allowances for their duty. This will help them to become more effective. They could be appointed on a rotating basis.

3. The teachers should have records at district level where the teacher's achievements, failures, whereabout, resignations, employment, transfers, etc. can be recorded and updated regularly.

4. The Educational School's Secretaries should from time to time report to the CAB and not regard themselves just as members of the standing committee of the CAB (Central Advisory Board).

5. There should be more dissemination of information on the developments in education - to the teachers and other people involved in the education system.

6. Teachears in the field should have in services courses on continuous assessment, testing and evaluation so that they may do it effectively in the schools. It would help to improve teaching and learning in Lesotho schools.

XI. Teacher Education

166. In presenting this topic, the resource person highlighted what was done when one was said to be teaching. He said that teaching meant helping someone acquire or change some behaviour; that is: some skill, knowledge, attitude or appreciation. Teaching, he went on, was much more than presenting ideas, facts or information. It involved among other things, guiding someone to learn by means of the probing, discovering, analysing, and examining activities which help a person to develop knowledge, skills, attitudes and values, and the behaviour of the learner.

167. The resource person examined teacher education under the following headings:

- the etymology of teaching;
- the technology of teaching;
- objectives of teacher education and
- the professionalization of teaching.

(a) Etymology of Teaching

168. Three principles of the etymology of teaching were emphasized. First, to teach is to nourish or cultivate the growing mind of a learner, or to rule that learner an intellectual exercise; or to train him in the horticultural sense of directing or guiding his growth.

169. The second principle is that of acquisition in which the teacher played the role of a transmitter of knowledge to the learner. Teaching was a form of alchemical wetting in that the student was imbued with a love for learning, ideas are infused;

and wisdom instilled. What the teacher does is to propagate knowledge, engender thoughts, implant the germs of ideas, and the student perceives what is transmitted by the teacher must be stored by the learner, and what has been stored by the learner must be put into use through practice to avoid waste.

170. A third principle discussed was that of construction by which a teacher informs the learner in the sense that his behaviours was given some form or shape. Thus to teach was to edify in the sense of building by which a teacher builds precursors such as knowledge, habits or attitudes.

171. It was emphasized that the three variables composed the contingencies of reinforcement under which learning took place: an occasion upon which behaviour occurred, and the consequences of behaviour. Teaching was thus the arrangement of contingencies of reinforcement.

(b) the technology of teaching

172. It was emphasized that while the technology of teaching was more concerned with the behaviour of learners, there were other factors which affected learning e.g. the environment, social and economic factors, the community, teachers etc.

173. To start with, teachers were always blamed when new educational policies, methods of teaching, administration failed to improve education. If a child who attended school behaved badly at home or in the village, it was because teachers had not taught him how to behave well. The schools and their teachers must be to blame.

174. Furthermore, teachers were accused of being incompetent, or not good enough for our schools either because they were not properly trained, untrained, inexperienced or simply because they were second best. Students may learn something without actually being taught by a teacher, but this did not mean that teachers were not needed. Often teachers did a lot to awaken the interest of the passive student to learn something. It must be emphasized that a teacher was a specialist in human behaviour whose assignment was to bring about extraordinarily complex materials.

175. Through a technology of teaching, a teacher was able to clarify the variables he was manipulating as well as their effects. A technology of teaching improved the role of the teacher as a human being. It provided capital equipment which gave him some of the time he needs to be human. It gives him time to take an interest in his students, to advise and counsel them. A technology of teaching also permited a teacher to teach more than he knew; that is why in the performing arts and sports a teacher may teach what he himself cannot do; although others preferred to call such action as coaching rather than teaching. However, emphasis must be made of the fact that a technology of teaching helped most by increasing the teacher's productivity. It simply permited him to teach more i.e. more of a given subject.

176. A second major aspect one may wish to consider was that of administration. Administering a school or college often seemed far removed from teaching, but a system of administration, no matter how complex, had only one object: to make sure that teaching occurred under the most favourable conditions. A given method of instruction determines such administrative details as the nature of space in which instructions occurred, the kind of textbooks and equipment, apparatus etc. needed, as well as the kind of people who teach, how they are trained, the number of students they should teach, the salary they are to be paid and for how long they had to work a day, week/year.

177. Administrative instructions to schools and teachers were issued on curriculum, syllabus, examination, student and teacher behaviour and on many other issues. All these had their effects

on learning and teaching, and as far as it was known, administration could seriously hamper learning.

178. A third element in teaching was support and policy. People support education by actually teaching, by organizing educational systems, by building and equipping schools and by inducing others to do all this; or pay to have it done. Support almost determined policy - the same people specified who was to be taught, how well they were too be taught, for how long and how much was to be taught. Educational policy never recommended bad teaching, but it could be the cause of poor teaching and unsatisfactory learning on the part of students.

(c) Objectives of teacher education

179. In examining the objectives of teacher education, account was taken of the national policy on the devlopment of education in Lesotho which was described as follows:

- the attainment of universal basic education for the majority of the people for self-fulfilment;

- to equip the majority of Basutos with necessary occupational, technical and managerial skills and knowledge for effective participation in national development;

- pay greater attention to an education which generated scientific thinking, problem solving, technical skills, and attitudes for income generation or self-reliance and self-fulfilment;

- to provide educational opportunities to all shades of society through formal and non-formal education programmes.

180. In pursuance of these national education policies, the objectives of teacher education in Lesotho were spelt out as follows:

- to introduce teacher trainees to the study of education as a basic social institution; and to the profession of teaching as regards its ethics;

- help prospective teachers to develop competence and sophistication in at least two teaching subjects and develop profeciency in the teaching process through theory and practice;

- develop an understanding of teaching and learning processes as they effect the selection, organization, presentation and evaluation of curriculum materials and resources for various age levels and ability groups to which students will be exposed; and

- assist each student in developing a workable philosophy, an understanding and appreciation of the ethical responsibilities of a professional educator in developing Lesotho.

181. To fulfil these objectives, teacher training programme in Lesotho tried to prepare teacher trainees by offering them general education covering academic courses in the arts and sciences, to strengthen the trainee's academic background of the subject, then subject matter preparation i.e. the field of specialization such as in English, Mathematics or Sesotho. Third, the programme offered Professional sequence through the foundationes of education e.g. philosophy of education, psychology etc. Most important for teacher education programme was the clinical training in teaching.

182. In the case of Lesotho, it was pointed out that clinical training involved a whole academic year of internship during which time, student teachers were attached to the schools where they taught full time. However, there was too much expected from student teachers during this period of internship. Added to this complexity was the inadequacy of supervision by subject specialists during the period of internship. Many trainees were usually supervised and assessed by non-subject specialists who sent their reports to the National Teacher Training College for the attention of subject specialists. Further, the quality of class teachers or mentors at school where students were placed varied greatly from one school to another so that very little help was given to the student trainees. Some of the class teachers assigned to help trainees would be lacking in experience, because they, would not have taught for too long perhaps for two or three years. Some of the trainees received very little help from the teachers at school because the shortage of teachers in some schools made it difficult for the few teachers available to assist trainees with their teaching.

183. During the discussion, a view was expressed that what Lesotho needs is not perhaps a year of internship, but some organized teaching practice of say two months or a term. This could be done twice in a three year programme i.e. one term for teaching practice in the second and one in the third year.

184. More important, the Workshop expressed the following views: That teaching practice involved assessment and hence the fear students had of supervisors. Many students regarded teaching practice as a survival task and not a clinical experience. Educationists continued to ignore this fact that teacher education was an applied field and fundamentally different from the study of philosophy and mathematics: so that field experience was of vital importance to the prospective teacher. Certainly, college tutors taught about teaching, but gave the prospective teacher little opportunity to practice what he was learning about. Tutors did not seem to teach "teaching".

185. Therefore what was needed in a teacher education programme was professional laboratory experience i.e. a planned set of experiences which exposed the trainee to the professional problems of teaching and the issues confronting teachers in the classroom every day of their teaching life; and those experiences which aided the prospective teachers in the acquisition of teaching skills and strategies for classroom instructions.

186. The clinical experience might include peer teaching, observation, teaching practice etc. and it would be hoped that this field experience would increase academic and professional knowledge, changes in classroom behaviour; and modification of attitudes towards children, teaching and teacher education.

187. It must be pointed out that the teaching ability of an individual was greatly improved by training offered through method courses and through teaching practice even though teaching practice assessment was very much dependent on the subjective impressions of the individual supervisors. Many teacher training institutions insisted that failure in teaching practice leads to failure in the course since anyone who failed the practical side of a job could not become proficient in that job. In the case of teaching, it was argued that any trainee who failed in teaching practice should not be allowed to teach.

(d) Professionalization of Teaching

188. A distinction was made of the various terms associated with teaching as a profession viz.: profession, professional, professionalism and professionalization. This last term was defined as the dynamic process whereby occupations can be observed to change certain crucial characteristics in the direction of a profession, even though some of these may not move very far in this direction. It follows that these crucial characteristics constitute specifiable criteria of professionalization.

189. The Workshop therefore, identified the characteristics of a profession as follows:

(i) Knowledge based upon scientific theory i.e. skills which laymen do not possess;

(ii) Service orientation based on the needs of clients;

(iii) Function i.e. the unique function it has to perform in society;

(iv) Standards of education and training as determined by those persons operating as professionals in the given profession i.e. they prescribed the education and training required.

(v) Long adult socialization period of a practical element as part of the professionalization process;

(vi) Licensure i.e. a certificate issued in recognition of a person's competence to perform in the profession;

(vii) Licensing and admission boards to determine standards for admission to the profession or exclusion from it;

(viii) Legislation often shaped by that profession;

(ix) Income, power, prestige and ranking and students: profession usually attract high calibre students, and professionals have power, shared tasks and more good salaries. Teachers on the other hand, are not well paid and the students who come for teaching in primary or secondary schools usually take the profession as second choice;

(x) Norms of practice were more stringent than legal controls;

(xi) Career commitment to the profession irrespective of monetary benefits;

(xii) Lifelong occupation for the majority the profession was a terminal occupation where they continued to work for the rest of their lives.

190. Teaching may not satisfy many of these characteristics, but it was important to realize that there were factors which dictated for teachers to develop a different relationship to society and therefore making the occupation a profession.

191. During the workshop, a contrast was made between education as a profession and other professions as shown in Table 5.

Table 3. Contrasts between the Education Profession and other Profession

In the Education Profession	In other Profession
1. The practitioner works with 30 or more clients simultaneously.	1. The practitioner deals with one client at a time.
2. The relationship is adult to child or youth.	2. The relationship is mostly adult to adult even on behalf of a child
3. Treatment is conducted in a class-room with 30 or more other clients, observing and hearing all that takes place.	3. Treatment is conducted a private room with one client.
4. Treatment continues 4-6 hours for at least 180-200 days a year.	4. Client sees practitioner by appointment, and period is normally brief.

5. A multitude of problems must be dealt with continuously and constantly.	5. The client consults the expert usually regarding one specific problem.
6. Results of treatment are long range and not immediately evident.	6. Experts advice usually brings immediately identifiable results.
7. Results are intangible concerning attitudes and behavious.	7. Results are tangible immediately visible.
8. Compensation derives from public funds.	8. The client is expected to pay the practitioner directly.
9. The client is required to submit to the treatment by law.	9. The client voluntarily seeks expert services.
10. Legal responsibility for the welfare of children is complex i.e. involving parents.	10. Legal responsibility is direct and from adult to adult (except child medicare, perhaps).
11. The client has no/little choice in the selection of the practitioner.	11. The client choses his expert, and can change choice at will.
12. Communication to the adult world is through the minds of children, often creating misunderstandings.	12. communication is adult to adult, often without intermediary.

XII. Factors Influencing Teacher Education

192. A number of factors which influenced teacher education were considered viz.:

(a) Political influences whereby politicians had a lot of power in African countries and in many cases their authority could not be questioned. Statements by politicians about teachers and their teaching and about education has serious implications on the way teachers are trained.

(b) Environmental factors which influenced learning and education. Much of what went in a teacher training college was greatly influenced by the invironment.

(c) Economic Considerations for training teachers whether the economy could sustain a teachers' programme and absorb teachers thereafter.

(d) Financial in terms of availability of funds for training teachers, equipment, instructional facilities and teachers' pay. Most high caliber persons considered teaching as a second choice

because they felt that teachers were poorly paid and as such they would not want to become teachers. Should opportunity arise, high calibre persons would leave teacher training or teaching altogether.

(e) Social influences in terms of social background of trainees; of the society, community and of parents.

(f) Governmental influence in terms of laws, rules and regulations about teacher education programmes, government's policy on the training of teachers, conditions of services, benefits, privileges, incentives, length of training, in-service programmes etc.

(g) Religious influences especially in a country with so many religions beliefs and where there are denominational training colleges. Religious instructions may take a major part in the training programme.

(h) Technological factors - the development of technology affects the way teachers were trained and how programmes were to be executed. The use of instructional technology for instance had direct bearing on the way teachers conducted their teaching in schools.

(i) Parents/Community - The way teachers were trained was also greatly influenced by the parents and community for whom teachers were supposed to minister to their needs. Parents and the community finance teacher training and therefore the two had a say on what happened in a training college and the kind of output which served their needs.

193. These were some of the factors which were considered by the workshop; although they were not exhaustive. Participants also felt that there were other factors which tended to limit the authority of teachers. First the teachers lack of authority stems from the hierarchical authority pattern which existed in many educational set-up and arising out of bureaucratic procedures. Secondly teachers' inability to measure performance of learners and results without being questioned. Then there was the lack of assurance by the administrators that the interests of teachers would be taken care of, coupled with the public's view of the critical nature of education and how responsive it was to national and societal needs. Teachers often bare the blunt for the education's lack of responsiveness.

194. In fact, teachers' authority was lessened because their actions and decisions were subject to the approval by the national/region ministry of education, the community and the citizenry. Indeed the teacher had many handicaps in making decisions about teaching. There were rigid roles and regulations, instructions and the popular teachers guide often restricted the teacher's room for manoeuvr and independent decisions.

XIII. Approaches to Teacher Education and Training

195. The Workshop reviewed teacher education as being composed of two sub systems in the teacher training programme viz:

(i) the instructional sub-system and

(ii) the management sub-system.

(I) The Instructional Sub-System

196. In considering the instructional sub-system, it was pointed out that:

(i) a decision had to be made to make use of systems design principles in teacher training;

(ii) clearly defined objectives of teacher programme in terms of the skills needed by teachers, and the behaviour which was considered as evidence of the competence of a teacher should be spelt out so that it could be assessed easily;

(iii) the programme should be adaptable to the individual needs of each trainee in terms of his/her previous level of achievement his/her of learning, and the particular subject preferences;

(iv) the programme should not be intended to produce stereotyped teachers, but a prospective one with various components that made up professional competence with a style best suited to oneself.

(v) the trainee must, under laboratory conditions, be able to show his/her ability to bring about the desired learners outcomes, before being certified to teach as a qualified teacher.

197. In developing an instructional systems model, a decision had to be made on the use of systems design principles in teacher training. To do this it was necessary to:

(a) specify the desired outcomes of learners,

(b) specify the way each outcome can be realized,

(c) specify the competencies needed by teachers to provide the conditions for the realization of each outcome;

(d) specify the ways the necessary teacher competencies could be developed.

198. Since the major objective of teacher training was to prepare teachers for instructional work, it will also be necessary for teachers to develop non-instructional competencies e.g.

- how to deal with parents, pupils, administrators and the community.

199 In this regard, it was emphasized that the content of a teacher training programme should be derived from a combination of both the instructional and non-instructional competencies. In doing this, account should also be taken of the fact that factors affecting learning did change, the desired learner outcomes changed, knowledge of the factors affecting [illegible] these outcomes developed, and that supportive functions continued with the development of technology etc.

200 Thus it was emphasized during discussions that in planning an instructional programme it was not enough to consider the present needs and desires, but also the future needs and aspirations of society, the individual, the learner and the nation at large. To do this, it was necessary for one to make logical and systematic assumptions about teacher education and training.

201 In developing an instructional system, teacher training curriculum may follow the following steps as shown in

Table 5: - PROCESSUAL MODEL OF THE TEACHER TRAINING CURRICULUM

Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Educational Goals	School Instructional Programme	Teacher Training Goals	Teacher Training Programme
Aims and objectives	Conditions	Teacher Competencies	Conditions
Desired Learner Outcomes	Generating Desired Learner Outcomes	Provides Conditions	Provides Teachers Competencies
		Desired Outcomes	Desired Conditions
			Outcomes

A second aspect of the instructional model was the content specifications viz.

1. Content should be designed to prepare prospective instructional managers for their role as facilitators of desired outcomes in learners;

2. At the same time it should be designed to prepare prospective instructional managers for their role as performers of certain non-instructional tasks;

3. Content should also be designed to develop general purpose skills that enhance or facilitate the application of professional abilities;

4. It should also be designed to provide for the personalization of all competencies, and

5. Content should be designed to prepare instructional managers for the future.

202. In practice, however, such content needed to be organized in such a way that it was in agreement with the general education and institutional requirements. This can be done by organizing the instructional programme into three phases viz.;

- the foundations; the laboratory; and the practicum phases.

These phases were established because four activities tended to dominate the instructional sub-system i.e. a demonstrative of:

- the mastery of basic knowledge pre-requisite to the development of instructional and non-instructional competencies; (foundation phase);

- the instructional and inter-personal competencies under simulated classroom conditions; (laboratory phase);

- the instructional/non-instructional and inter personal competencies in an actual (supervised) classroom situation (practicum phase); and

- that all the knowledge, competencies and abilities required for the career teacher had been integrated into a unique and personally relevant teaching style (inter-phasic).

203. A third very important aspect was to determine procedures for the development of instructional abilities for the instructional manager who was able to elicit appropriate changes in the behaviour of pupils. The problem however was that of designing a teacher training programme which would be essential to the elementary instructional manager of tomorrow.

(a) At best therefore, it would clearly spell out the nature of entry behaviour expected of trainees e.g.

- the definition of traits considered essential to the initial learning activities;

- the definition of both proignitive and effective entry behaviours which may be easily demonstrated or measured.

(b) Procedures for the foundation phase consisting of various systems necessary to acquire knowledge about;

(i) learning;

(ii) basic content;

(iii) characteristics of the learners and

(iv) the learners outcomes.

204. These varied from country to country so as to decide on the basic content of the teacher training programme. Procedures for a laboratory phase should ensure that the programme provided for an analysis of the behaviours of the effective instructional manager in order to:

- describe behaviours which were supported by research into teaching; and

- identified specific tasks related to those behaviours.

The programme should then provide for the design of instructional system to produce the behaviour identified in each task so as to:

- communicate the desired behaviour to the trainee;

- pre-assess and identify the entry behaviour of the trainee;

- separate each task into component activities and incremental steps;

- provide various opportunities for the student to demonstrate criterion behaviour;

- provide an assessment procedure for each component activity; and

- provided at each assessment alternative activities to accommodate different levels of behaviour.

(c) On entry into the practicum phase, a trainee was assumed to be competent at various levels in each separate element of the teaching process. It was during this phase that the trainee began the professionalization process to carry out his role as a member of the teaching profession working with both children and adults.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF NON-INSTRUCTIONAL ABILITIES:

205. The Workshop considered the non-instructional abilities of the sub-system and concluded that the non-instructional roles of the instructional manager included the following:

(i) participation in administrative policy making regarding policy, curriculum and school management;

(ii) work with communities to satisfy the needs of the total school programme including the physical facilities, financial support, respect of patrons etc.;

(iii) assistance in the professional growth of fellow teachers;

(iv) personal responsibility for one's professional growth;

(v) participation in other administrative activities;

(vi) improving pre- and in-service teacher training programme;

(vii) communicating the needs of the profession to the public and the authorities.

Given these roles, the general procedures for the development of non-instructional competencies should ensure that the programme;

- provided for analysis of the range of teacher behaviours in order to explain the basic knowledge required to play an effective role as an instructional manager;

- provided for task to be stated in the form of behaviour objectives;

- provided for instructional systems to produce the behaviour identified in each task;

- provided for experiences in which the trainee acquired necessary competencies including additional one necessary for a teaching career

Personalization of Professional Abilities:

For a trainee to develop into a professional, it is necessary for such an individual to define oneself i e

develop a knowledge of one's basic personal characteristics; distinguish one's own knowledge and one's self definition and one's actual behaviour

- define oneself-awareness i e. mastery of the concept of learning styles, recognition of alternative styles and practice in the application of alternative styles;

- self-direction i.e. knowledge of alternative settings within which to teach, and opportunities to practice within these setting;

- professional commitment i.e. knowledge of one's basic attitude, value or belief, an opportunity for one to check oneself the relationship between knowledge and one's behaviour; and for others to check between one's stated commitment and one's actual behaviour.

The Management Sub-system.

The Management sub-system existed side by side with the instructional sub-system to ensure that;

- the objectives of education were achieved;

- that cost data were provided for all the operations within the model-based teacher training programme as a whole; and

- that it was organized in such a way that functions within it would have as their aim, the enhancement of instruction.

206. Looked at this way the management sub-system placed the instructional programme in the centre of the model; stressesed the idea that information and directional influence flowed both from the instructional component to support the units; and provided for a continuous flow of information to the policy-adapted component and hence to the programme execution component.

(a) Characteristics of the Management Sub System

- Since the instructional sub-system was the focus of the teacher training programme, it established the frame of references for the operation of the management system; thus the first characteristic of the management system was its dependent relationship on the instructional programme by seeking out information it needed to serve the instructional programme;

- Secondly the management system lay in its receptive nature for the direction of the instructional programme;

- It determined what needs were to be provided for and therefore ensured that an information network existed for satisfying the needs of an instructional programme; and

- Thirdly the management system had adaptive-corrective abilities. It should be able to adjust and select possible alternatives.

207. In conclusion, while the participants were agreed on the need for the two sub-systems to exist side by side, it was pointed out that a lot of impasse in the training of teachers in Lesotho was put on the instructional sub-system. Yet some of the teachers rose to positions of responsibility without any further training or in-service course. It was therefore important that, during the initial teacher training, trainees should develop both instructional and management abilities. Evidence showed that not all good teachers were good managers, one had to develop skills in both aspects.

208. In particular, the management sub-system ensured that a teacher developed skills in decision making, in the execution and implementation of government policy, in performing instructional functions e.g. that he could control a class while teaching; in the execution of programmes; in providing information; in dealing with other academic staff and non- instructional staff and assessing the expected outcomes of education.

209. All these functions must relate to each other and as far as possible should be closely interwoven as integral parts of a system i.e. the teacher training system.

XIV. Improving the Effectiveness of Teachers

210. The Workshop considered ways and means of how teachers could be made more effective in their teaching. In the discussion of this topic, participants agreed to examine those factors which limited the decision making process of teachers and see how a clear understanding of those factors could improve the effectiveness of teachers viz.:

(1) The School as a Socializing Agent

211. Citizens established and financed schools so that all children should attend to perpetuate the values of society. Schools existed in large measure to socialize young people into an adult society. At the same time the traditions, customs and mores of the people influenced schools. If teachers were to be effective in moulding the youth to fit into society, they should take into account the traditions, customs and mores of the people. Many decisions by teachers were limited by the fact that a school was a socializing agent and they must act within that context.

(2) Specific Functions of the Schools

212. Schools provided a basic education programme of studies prescribed for teachers by the establishment, ministry of education or the state. Teachers were only actors playing the roles which had been assigned to them by the state. They could not take decisions which went beyond their assigned roles, nor could they act or behave in a manner contrary to what was expected of them.

(3) Goals of Community/Society

213. Decision making of the teachers may be limited by the desires, goals and expectations of society or community. The community may want schools to teach the political creed or ideology of the country against their will. Teachers in rural areas may be following the same syllabus as urban schools even when they were convinced that the education they were giving the youth did not equip them with the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes for a productive life in rural areas. Teachers should therefore take into account the goals and expectations of the community if they are to be effective.

(4) Teachers' Competence

214. In every profession, there must be some individuals who were incompetent, not intellectually capable, who have a limited knowledge of the subject they are teaching, who are unproductive and who for one reason or another dislike students/pupils.

215. If we are to help pupils/students in whatever they are learning, incompetent teachers needed guidance, help, assistance

and where necessary in-service training just as much as the competent ones do. It is also necessary to have rules, policies and procedures to guide and occassionally control both the competent and incompetent teachers. If competent teachers have to keep pace with the changing technology of teaching, curriculum and teaching methods, they too need refresher courses, in-service training and up-grading courses.

(5) Teacher Turnover

216. In many countries, teachers were not well paid; their chances of promotion were almost nil and their conditions of services not as good as those other workers paid from government fund. There were perhaps few countries where teachers have the same conditions of service as civil servants and equal pay or same/similar salary scales. As a result, teachers turnover were very high in countries where job opportunities existed. Lesotho was not very fortunate in this regard.

(6) Limitation of human financial and instructional facilities

217. Many schools in Arica operated within the context of serious shortages of teachers. In some schools, the proportions of untrained teachers was higher than that of qualified teachers. Thus the untrained teachers also had a full teaching load, and sometimes with a load higher than the national maximum allowed by the State. The untrained teacher therefore received no or little guidance from the few qualified teachers teaching at the same school.

218. A second aspect connected with teacher shortage was the high pupil/teacher ratio. In some countries a teacher had been known to teach sixty/seventy primary school pupils in one class or more than ninety. Certainly in a class of this size, the teacher had no time to give individual attention to the pupils, let alone mark one third of the exercise books of the pupils during an ordinary period of 35/40 minutes duration. Conversely some rural schools had become uneconomic to run.

219. A third aspect was the lack of facilities in many rimary schools - no adequate classrooms; and hence the need to operate a double-shift system, or to conduct classes in the open space or under a tree; lack of desks, chairs or benches, no laboratories or libraries, and accommodation for the teaching staff. Besides, many rural schools did not have accommodation for teachers and hence many teachers left rural schools.

220. Textbooks, stationery, and instructional materials were often in short supply, and many schools had to do with a teacher as the only source of information. As textbooks were usually prescribed by the Ministry of Education, and all pupils had to take the same examinations at the end of the programme, teachers were not given any freedom to use other textbooks not recommended by the State. Teachers could not change the prescribed textbooks

set by the Ministry of Education. One point emphasized was that pupils in Lesotho were not allowed to take their school books back home. The result had been poor performance by students.

(7) Limitations arising from National Education System

221. A national education system can be a major factor in limiting the decision making process of teachers and affect their effectiveness in teaching. Central administration issued many decrees that teachers could not give accelerated promotion for pupils of exceptionals abilities, or that even in the most uneconomic schools, a teacher was not allowed to have a mixed class; i.e. that pupils of two or three grades could not be in one class being taught by one teacher but having different topics according to their grades.

222. A second aspect of the national education system was that all schools irrespective of their locality had to follow a common curriculum, a common syllabus and had to start and end on the same day except where permission had been obtained from higher authority. With such a common syllabus, all students/pupils must sit for the same examinations beginning and ending on the same day.

223. In this way the country could keep to the same standards and ensure that the rural areas did not have a different standards from urban areas. Teachers must ensure that they completed the syllabus and they could not as far as possible teach topics outside the syllabus. In any case, they must make sure that they had prepared their pupils/students adequately to pass the national examinations. After all, in many countries parents judge the quality and ability of techers by the examination successes of their children. Many teachers therefore simply prepred pupils/students to pass examination and anyone who passes a national examination had been adequately prepared to play some role in society. Thus the possession of a certificate ensured that one was employable evan if one could not get a job immediately.

224. A third major factor which limited teachers decision making process was the national textbooks system. Because schools must follow a common syllabus, they must also have common textbooks. Teachers cannot use any textbooks other than those prescribed by the national education body/board responsible for education: the curriculum, syllabus, examination etc. The supply of textbooks too was through the same channel for every school. If there was a delay by the national supplier of textbooks, the delay was for everybody and not just one school. A teacher may find one book more suitable to his class than one which was prescribed by the national body/board, but he was bound by regulation to use the book prescribed and not the one he considers more appropriate to his needs.

225. Finally, most countries in Africa had one national accrediting agency or certifying agency/organization; such a body

ensured that all schools conformed to the same standards irrespective of where they were in the country (rural or urban).

XV. Group Discussions on Teacher Education

226. Having examined various issues raised in respect of teacher education, the Workshop had three groups to discuss in greater details some of the points raised so that they would come up with recommendations.

227. The first group discussed the following:

228. "The policy of improving/providing opportunities for basic skills training to all youth in Lesotho will require support and expansion of those institutions that will provide training and services of non-formal educational programmes."

229. What kind of expansion programme activities are envisaged by this and how could teacher education and training be reformed to take account of this.

The group first identified three basic skills:

- communication skills - involving numeracy and literary through reading writing etc.

- life skills so that individuals are provided with skills and knowledge to improve the quality of life in the family e.g. develop knowledge and skills in nutrition, sanitation, health etc.

- production skills i.e. technical vocational skills e.g. skills in pottery, wood work, skills in masonary, grasswork, arts and crafts.

230. The group then considered ways and means of providing education which would ensure the acquisition of these basic skills. It agreed that the mere provision of universal primary education might not necessarily ensure that these skills were developed in learners. Teachers needed to be well trained so that they were better equipped to develop such skills in pupils.

231. It was pointed out that Lesotho secondary schools provided some elementary technology, commercial subjects, home economics and agriculture. It was important, therefore, that the primary school curriculum should be revised to incorporate some of these practical skills so that students can continue with them during their secondary school education. Training colleges should also revise their curriculum in order to prepare trainees with knowledge and skills for the teaching of practical skills in both primary and secondary schools. Practical subjects should be subject to external examinations like all other subjects.

232 One major problem was that teacher trainers in Lesotho were rather conservative and not readily ready to reform teacher training. Attempts to ensure that trainees were well prepared for their new tasks. Trainers' reforms must start with the trainers themselves if progress was to be made in a changing world.

233 The second group considered the following statements about teachers in Lesotho as highlighted in the fact file:

- that teachers lacked motivation, patriotism and their public relations were poor;
- that professionally they lacked competence, were lacking in skills and their [illegible] were poor;
- that their management skills were lacking, and
- that they lacked [illegible].

234 After long deliberations, the group came up with the following suggestions and recommendations for improvement:

(1) Selection into teacher training institutions should be more rational and strict so as to ensure that the people were taken a more stringent interview for selection should be practised, because some of those who applied for teaching did so after their first choice had failed.

(2) Instil in both the trainers and the trainees the qualities that has to do with the affective domain e.g. loyalty, love of one's country and the people, love of their work etc.

(3) Help teacher trainees to understand clearly the concepts, teaching, learning, evaluation, testing etc. It was often because of this misunderstandings that teachers may seem to lack dedication. They were not sure that they were teaching or the students were learning [illegible].

(4) Intensive in-service to the whole teaching force regularly to sensitize the tertiary teachers to initiate new graduates into the business of teaching and also to revive their own competencies in teaching.

(5) Trainers should be sensitized with the environment in which their trainees would be working so as to be better in their training to suit the needs of society in the real situation in which they were to work.

(6) After certification, there should be a probational year in which the new graduants from teacher training were helped to apply the theory they were given in the teacher training institutions. This probational year would most likely help

the teacher not only to get assimilated into the system but also to take decisions as to whether or not they really wanted to be teachers.

(7) Besides the normal increments to a teacher's salary, the teachers could be given recognition in the forms of awards that may give them a drive to work harder at their teaching.

(a) If a teacher produces good results at the end of each year, he/she should be given [illegible] money or a token of acknowledgement.

(b) When pupils opt to go to [illegible] such as secondary, they should fill-in a form to express their views on what knowledge or skills they find useful in their daily activities.

(c) The learner in the final year of high school should also fill-in a questionnaire where she/he lists the most important concepts they learned from primary, secondary and the first year in High School, that helped them to better their learning in their class. The students could also say from who they learned these useful concepts. The issue of responsibility could be introduced without actually promoting teachers to a higher post.

235. It was enjoined that if the recommendations above were implemented, they would most likely help to build the teachers sense of duty and that society recognized him as a useful citizen. Many teachers with a lack of dedication would step off, many dedicated teachers would work much harder on their work.

(8) Above all, teacher trainers or educators should not only teach methods and profess what to do, but model those as well because students learn more from what their tutors do than from what they said. TEACH BELIEVE & PROFESSIONAL ETHICS AND MODEL THEM FOR OUR BENEFIT OR THE [illegible].

236. The third group considered the following problem about teacher education in Lesotho:

(a) Teachers in [illegible] should plan and carry out learning activities based on [illegible] curriculum objectives in his field and relevant to the needs of the students and the environment of the area.

(b) Teachers should be [illegible] in specific skill that is directly useful to people in the area where the teacher lives and works.

Issues

1. Examine the implications of the recommendations for teacher education in Lesotho.

2. What kind of programme would equip teachers with these competencies or skills.

237. The group first began by reviewing the two recommendations. In reviewing these two recommendations the group asked itself

many questions. These questions and the answers led the group to examine the notion of the implications of the recommendations for teacher education in Lesotho and also to discussing the kind of programme which would equip teachers with competencies and skills to carry out the two recommendations.

III. There were three major questions asked:

(1) Are there established curriculum objectives?

(2) Are these objectives related to the needs of the students and the environment of the area?

(a) In answering the question the group felt that the NCDC, who were in charge of curriculum development, were trying in all honesty to have established curriculum objectives that were related to the needs of the students in both rural and urban areas.

(3) Were the teachers in Lesotho able to plan and carry out learning activities based on this established curriculum?

(a) Several issues arose out of this question. The issue of planning itself was the most important issue. The group discussed two types of planning viz.:

(1) planning based on an established curriculum; referring to established syllabi and

(2) planning based on national policy guidelines.

IV. (1) In relationship to the first type of planning, the group felt that teachers needed to first learn how to plan competently. Second, after learning how to plan competently, then they should be able to carry out the learning activities in their plans. As planning involved the curriculum itself, it followed that planning competently would mean learning activities which were based on an established curriculum.

(2) In discussing planning based on national policy, the group referred itself to the Task Force Report which spelled out the National Educational Policy for Lesotho. It was apparent that the established curriculum should concern itself with the following for each student: personal growth skills, social life skills, occupational skills, technical skills, managerial skills, vocational skills, literacy, numeracy and communicators skills, cultural values, productive and income generating skills and many others.

V. Since all of these skills would be useful to the peoples of Lesotho, the group felt that teacher education in Lesotho must provide opportunities for its teachers to develop competencies in Lesotho they must provide opportunities for its teachers to develop competencies in as many of these skills as possible. It seemed a bit unrealistic to focus attention on only one skill as

no one in all honesty could say which skill would be preferable over another. Nevertheless, the group did feel strongly that all subjects at the colleges and universities could encompass some types of "productive skills"; productive skills being those skills useful for the production of services in the community.

VI. In conclusion, for teacher education in Lesotho, several implications were considered which were divided up into the following categories; financial, material, human, teaching/ learning, curricular and managerial.

(1) Financial implications: revision of salaries, additional personnel, acknowledgement upon attainment of skills, acknowledgement for imparting skills;

(2) Material implications: more and better facilities, better access to both rural and urban facilities;

(3) Human implications: improved knowledge about what skills the staff do and don't possess, deployment and employment of teachers;

(4) Teaching/learning implications: improvement in teaching and learning for transfer, application of subject content;

(5) Curricular implications: reformulation of the teacher education curriculum: subject content, time allocation, timing, demonstrated competencies in using and applying the concepts/ skills from the school's syllabi; and

(6) Managerial implications: simpler administration; one boss; clear cut channels for reception of feedback.

VII. In considering the kind of programme which would equip teachers with these types of skills or competencies, the group focused its discussion on the length and type of training which of course, had its own implications. The group felt that the programme would run for four consecutive years. These four years would focus on the following aspects:

Year I: Would be given to general knowledge. During this time teacher educators would analyse the interests, aspirations, expectations, attitudes and values of the teacher and identify skills and competencies already possessed.

Year II. Strengthen the talents already possessed by the students and application of learned content under laboratory conditions.

Year III. Students initiate and complete a research project.

Year IV. Application of learned competencies and skills in a field based experience, where teachers would demonstrate the

ability to use at least one specific skill in serving the community where the teacher lives and works.

PART FOUR

XVI. Evaluation and Conclusions of the Workshop

238. This part of the report expresses the opinions of the Workshop participants on the organization, administration logistic support, content, materials used, presentation and the value of the Workshop in relation to their respective jobs. The report is based on the participants responses to a questionnaire administered at the end of the Workshop and their own comments on issues which did not appear on the questionnaire but were voiced during discussions, and evaluation of the Workshop.

239. It is hoped that their responses and comments will help the organizers and collaborators of the Workshop take note of those areas wanting improvement and to maintain and improve on those areas where success has been greatly achieved. It must be emphasized that success may not be seen immediately rather than slowly through improved performance by participants in the execution of their duties and those who will find the Workshop report useful. It is also hoped that steps will be taken to implement the conclusions and recommendations of the Workshop of the forty six participants in the two part workshop, forty of them responded to the questionnaire which was 87 percent of responses to the questionnaire. A first response solicited from the participants was in respect of the organization, administration, logistic support and welfare of the participants. Seventy percent of the participants felt that the organization, administration, facilities and logistic support of the Workshop were excellent and the remaining thirty percent said that they were very good i.e. that all those who responded felt that the organization, administration and preparations were very good to excellent. As regards the length of the Workshop, both those who participated in the educational administration and teacher education expressed their feelings that the time allocated for the Workshop was short, so that not enough time was devoted to group discussion. This was however compensated by the very good and excellent instructional materials used in the Workshop. In fact seventy five percent of participants felt that the materials used were excellent, 20 percent said it was very good and the remaining five percent said that it was good. It was also the general feeling that there was a lot to read and the materials would prove very useful after the Workshop.

240. As regards the relevance of the Workshop to the participants' jobs and occupations, nearly a hundred percent said that the was very relevant to what they were doing, except for one participant who said that it was to some extent relevant. Sixty percent said the objectives of the Workshop had been very well fulfilled and the other forty said that they were adequately fulfilled. In all, they felt that the Workshop was worth while

and a great stimulant to many of them. In terms of their own satisfaction, over ninety percent said the Workshop was excellent and the other ten percent said it was very good. In fact in their note of thanks, they described the ECA resource person as a magician by method who had set them on fire with his wizardry presentations and involvement in the activities of the Workshop.

241. Sixty percent of the participants felt that group exercises were just right, but the remaining forty percent said they were too short as they did not allow for full involvement by all the participant. They felt that because of combining teacher education and administration into one programme, the time allocated for group exercises was very short. In fact, after group exercises, the time for reporting was rather too short.

242. Most of the participants expressed the view that they considered the topics covered very useful and relevant to their jobs. On teacher education, the most useful topics were the concept of teacher education, its approaches and influences on teacher education. Topics on educational administration which were of benefit to many participants were managerial and organizational styles, curriculum development and education planning and development. They wished more time should have been devoted to some of these topics.

243. The overall rating of the Workshop was that seventy percent felt it was excellent and the other thirty said it was very good, i.e. the majority of the participants were satisfied that they had benefitted from participating in the Workshop.

B. Summary, Conclusion and Recommendations

244. Following the expressed views of the participants, a number of very important issues emerged from the discussions, evaluation and lectures during the Workshop which merit the attention of the Ministry of Education of Lesotho, the National Teacher Training College, Maseru, and all educators in the country.

245. A major recommendation was that there was need for organizing a similar Workshop in educational administration and teacher education for the senior officers from the Ministry of Education, especially senior administrators and senior inspectors. It was also important that more officers i.e. teacher trainers from the National Teachers College should attend such a Workshop. Certainly a number of shortcomings had been pointed out during the Workshop which needed to be brought to the attention of the authorities from the various levels of the educational spectrum.

246. In particular, the participants felt that the current practice of book distribution was retarding education in Lesotho. Pupils were not allowed to take books home, and as a result their reading was being seriously retarded. Senior officers should attend such Workshop where they would be made aware of some of the problems facing teachers in the country.

247. The morale of teachers was low. They needed some kind of incentives. For instance subject specialists should be given some form of remuneration so that they are encouraged to assist younger staff in their work. There was an apparent lack of interest on the part of teachers because they feel that they were not well paid and as a result they were not motivated well enough to do a good job in teaching. There were also those teachers in secondary schools who felt that headship in secondary schools should rotate and such heads should be rewarded monetarily.

248. A third major point was that teachers especially in rural areas were not fed with information. There was lack of dissemination of information. Training opportunities were not made known to teachers who wanted to further their education, let alone, headmasters who tended to keep to themselves in their offices did not get the information from the Ministry of Education headquarters or regional offices.

249. There was also the lack of supervision by inspectors especially subject specialists. It was therefore, recommended that the Ministry of Education should as far as possible locate as many subject specialists at regional headquarters rather that at national headquarters in Nassau. Many teachers in rural areas did not have the benefit of having contacts with school inspectors as often as they would like to consult them about their problems in the field.

250. In respect of the training of teachers, participants felt that teacher trainers should as far as possible keep pace with technological development to ensure that trainees are provided with the kind of skills and knowledge needed in a changing world. They felt that there was an apparent lack of information on trainees when on an internship programme. Reports sent to the NTTC by trainee supervisors were not readily given to subject specialists for their comments and necessary action.

251. Heads of departments should as far as possible make information about interns available to subject specialists. More important was the need for co-ordination of what was going on in the field with what was happening in tuition.

252. Detailed recommendations on educational administration and teacher education are given in Part III of this report under group discussions and therefore they need not be repeated here.

Annex I

List of Participants

Name	Institution
A. Educational Professionals	
1. J. Chapla	National Teacher Training College, Maseru (Professional Studies)
2. J. Mensa	NTTC, Maseru (Professional Studies)
3. A.N. Nchapa	NTTC, Maseru (Commercial Studies)
4. M. Mphalane	NTTC Maseru (Professional studies)
5. L.L. Mahlomi	Ministry of Education, Maseru (Inspectorate)
6. M.E. Tseuoa	NTTC, Maseru (English Dept.)
7. T. Makoa	NTTC, Maseru (Social Development Studies)
8. T. Sehloho	PAMMTE Project, Maseru
9. D. Ntjala	PAMMTE Project, Maseru
10. M.E. Lehlanya	NTTC, Maseru (Music Dept.)
11. M. Mokuti	NTTC, Maseru (Social & Dev. Studies)
12. M. Lekeula	NTTC, Maseru (Prof. Studies)
13. M.E. Nkaeli	Institute of Extra Mural Studies (IEMS), Maseru
14. L.M. Mohlo	Ministry of Education, Maseru, (Inspectorate)
15. M. Sekonyela	NTTC, Maseru
16. M.M. Moeaka	Faculty of Education, National University of Lesotho (NUL), Roma
17. T.M. Ichiseya	NTTC, Maseru, Development Studies
18. T.A. Manfare	NTTC, Maseru, (Prof. Studies)

19.	J. Matooane	Faculty of Education, NUL, Roma
20.	O.S. Mothae	NTTC, Maseru, (Prof. Studies)
21.	L.Kolobe	NTTC, Maseru, (Prof. Studies)

B. Teacher Education

Name		Address
1.	M. Lekaota	NTTC Prof. Studies
2.	A. Mahametsa	NTTC Prof. Studies
3.	K. Mandoro	NTTC Prof. Studies
4.	M. Setlolela	NTTC Maths
5.	L. Mohokeng	NTTC Prof. Studies
6.	P. Tsephe	Professional Studies
7.	O.S. Mothae	Professional Studies
8.	J.T. Mda	NTTC Science
9.	T.J. Motjolo Pane	MOE
10.	M.E. Tsephe	ENG. NTTC
11.	R.L. Nkoale	NUL (IEMS)
12.	K.M. Varughese	NTTC Maths
13.	J.M. Phoofolo	NTTC Maths
14.	A.Y. Leballo	NTTC Prof. Studies
15.	G.M. Lehloenya	NTTC (Supervisor)
16.	L. Molise	NTTC Science
17.	Wesi Masisi	NTTC Science
18.	T.P. Makae	NTTC Soc. & Dev. Studies
19.	C.M. Moliete	NTTC Sesotho Dept.
20.	M. Mphalane	NTTC Prof. Studies
21.	M. Matsipa	NTTC Maths Dept.
22.	L. Kolore	NTTC Science Dept.
23.	Vuyelwa Ntoi	NTTC Science Dept.
24.	P.S. Lepolesa	M.E.D. (Ag S.E.O. Centre)
25.	J.L. Matooane	NUL

Resource Personnel

1. Peter H. Chiwona Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) P.O. Box 3001 Addis Ababa, Ethiopia;

2. Frank Schorn BANFES Project, Maseru Lesotho;

3. Barnabas Otaala BANFES Project, Maseru Lesotho.